

# THE READER

## A REVIEW OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

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### MR. BEECHER AND BRITISH OPINION ON AMERICA.

MR. BEECHER has been stethoscopic Great Britain—tapping its broad chest at various points with his oratory, and listening for the sounds of response. He is apparently surprised himself at having to report that there is less the matter with the patient than had been supposed—that the chest, or, at all events, the heart, seems sound on the American question. "Since I have come over to this country," he said on Tuesday evening last in Exeter Hall, "you have told me the truth; and I shall be able to bear back an assurance to our people of the enthusiasm you feel for the cause of the North." This was, perhaps, a hasty diagnosis, pronounced in the exhilaration of the moment, after a stethoscopic examination which other doctors would call superficial and incomplete. But it certainly would seem, from the results of Mr. Beecher's public appearances in this country these few weeks past, as if either a stronger force of opinion in favour of the North than formerly existed among us had of late been forming itself, or the amount of such opinion existing among us all along had hitherto been underrated. It is possible, indeed, even now to fall back upon the assertion that the portion of public opinion which finds expression in such meetings assembled to hear Mr. Beecher is no fair representation of the whole, and that there are large masses among us who, though they do not find it necessary or fitting to reveal their views in counter-meetings, show strongly enough their dissent from Mr. Beecher by not going to hear him. In other words, some may assert that, from the very circumstances of the case, Mr. Beecher's series of meetings has been necessarily no proper stethoscopic examination of the British mind on the American question at all, but only a tapping at particular points where the exact nature of the response might have been very easily predicted.

Certainly, a complete stethoscopic examination of the state of the British mind on the American question would be one of the most curious and interesting researches that could be undertaken at the present time. No one

as yet seems to have undertaken it. The newspapers take their sides, indeed, and put forth their arguments and expositions, more or less able, in support of the sides which they have taken. The American question is thus one of the most stirring questions of our practical politics. It is a vortex in the middle of us, drawing contrary opinions from all points of the compass into a whirl of argumentation. But a study of the British mind on the American question for the purposes of abstract or philosophical curiosity—an analysis or even an enumeration of the complex elements of opinion which meet and cross each other in the political discussion of the question, and which are so numerous and so conflicting that they deadlock each other, and, while vehement enough separately, produce a state of equilibrium on the whole, making it apparently impossible to say whether Britain as a nation goes with the North or with the South—this seems hardly to have been attempted. Indeed, it is hardly to be expected that those who concern themselves with the question practically, and who feel the impassioned interest in it that befits minds already made up as to their own duty, should have leisure for such an analysis. It might, nevertheless, be useful, even for practical purposes, to have such an analysis done to one's hand.

Should any one undertake the analysis, he will, first of all, have to note two powerful elements of British sentiment and opinion at the time when the civil war broke out, and which were the first to fasten on the great event and to frame and publish an interpretation of it in the name of Great Britain. One of these pre-existing elements of British opinion, appealed to by the war the moment it broke out, was a widely-diffused popular admiration for the constitution of the United States. It cannot but be known that, for a long time, there had been a growing admiration of this kind among large classes of the British people—a notion of the United States as a land of liberty, and breadth, and political equality, where men of small inherited means might, by industry, be happier, wealthier, and more independent than in the Old World; and a consequent affection for this part of the earth as considerably in advance of the rest in its social arrangements, and as a possible home at some time, if not for oneself, at least for one's posterity. It matters not that this feeling about America was identified with a special cast of British politics, and pervaded only special classes of the community—the classes least tied to Britain by permanent connexions, and most accessible to the idea of emigration. So far as it did exist, and wherever it did exist, it caused an interest in the future of the American Union, and a concern in its prospects. Hence the first effect of the news of the American war, encountering this considerable element of British opinion, was, undoubtedly, regret. That anything disastrous should happen to that land of promise for all who were not wealthy—that there should be peril to that assemblage of institutions under which civilization seemed to have taken a development in advance of that of the Old World—was a real grief to many who perhaps had never thought of going to America themselves. Now, if we add to this the effects simultaneously produced by the first signs of the war on another pre-existing element of British opinion—to wit, *hereditary detestation of slavery*—we shall see how it could hardly but happen that the first popular "pronunciation" in this country on the American war should be decidedly in favour of the North. And so it was. All must recollect that so it was.

That there were pre-existing elements of British opinion likely to urge, even at the first, to an unfavourable view of the cause of the North in the war, can hardly be doubted. But in such peculiar portions of the community were they lodged, and so slowly and timidly did they make their existence known by expression, and so dependent were they for their strength on the discovery they began to make of it, that it may fairly be said, in the

main, that the pro-Southern elements of British opinion have been developed by the events of the war itself, and by meditation on those events. For example, *respect for the doctrine of the right of collective political secession* is a feeling which hardly existed before the war, save among political theorists, but which meditation on the war has certainly made familiar to a considerable few. Even admirers of the Union were unable to resist the force that there seemed to be in the doctrine that, if a fragment of a confederacy, several millions strong in population, and occupying a continuous country, were persistently bent on detaching themselves from the confederacy, then to try to retain them by force would be, if not contrary to all modern political theory, at least useless in fact and a waste of energy. It was a pity, such persons thought, that so splendid a Union should be broken up; but might there not be some compensating value—with a view to other cases where no such regret would intrude—in the assertion of the principle of the essential factitiousness of all political combinations, their essential dependence on their proved working-power and cohesiveness? There are, moreover, persons—though these are but scattered political theorists—who see the working of a natural law of history in the tendency of existing political organizations to separate into parts and form themselves into divers types round new centres, and who, on this ground alone, when they became convinced of the real wish of the South to separate, even welcomed the fact, without further inquiry, as pointing to some necessary end. Probably this willingness, or more than willingness, to see the South set up as a separate nationality, if really determined to do so, would have been more general but for the black fact that it was a slave-power that was so setting itself up, and a slave-power bent on the preservation and extension of slavery as its chief institution, and seceding with that very intention. On this ground thousands who, in other cases, would have been vehement in their assertions of the doctrine of the factitiousness of states and the right of any considerable aggregates of men to separate themselves from bodies-politic with which they desired no longer to be united, denied the Southern States of America all benefit of this doctrine, and even, in the presence of a case so hideously exceptional, became impatient of the doctrine itself. But, on the other hand, among many, not treating the matter so, but rather ruminating the question quietly with this new complication, there emerged, almost to their own surprise, a feeling of doubt whether consideration of the war from the sole point of view of interest in the abolition of slavery would be just or expedient. This feeling has certainly gained ground; and it is not uncommon now to hear men, in speaking of the American war, excuse themselves from sympathizing with the North, on the plea that, though the extinction of slavery is an important interest, they see other important interests in the world which must have a share of their regards. And this somewhat new disposition, to regard the abolition of slavery as but one of various interests involved in the war, abuts on a still more extreme element of British opinion acting in favour of the South—an element the existence of which, terrible as it may be, cannot be doubted. It is nothing less than *weakened interest in certain quarters in the whole question of Negro Emancipation*. It cannot be doubted that, while the Wilberforce feeling is still a strong national feeling in Great Britain, powerfully swaying thousands and thousands, there are portions of British society in which it has become weak, or has dwindled into a mere form of phraseology, or has actually ceased to exist. This reaction against the enthusiasm of a former age, though not avowed—and yet sometimes it is avowed, and even in the form of violent pro-slavery argument—has affected the younger men among us in certain classes of society more widely than may be supposed. On the whole, however, even where



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the Wilberforce feeling no more exists as a powerful enthusiasm, it frequently does exist to the extent of a desire that negro slavery, as morally and economically a bad system, and worse perhaps for the whites than for the blacks, should disappear as soon as may be. The most important element of opinion about the American war, in its relations to slavery, that works in favour of the South is simply the feeling above spoken of—that the slavery question must be kept to its due proportions, and must not decide everything in a case where there may be other interests. And what other interests does this feeling find, the claims of which seem to it to justify a modified sympathy with the South? *Admiration of the pluck and able military conduct of the South* has certainly been of some effect in this direction—especially it was so before the death of General Stonewall Jackson; but even this admiration has been in part caused and nourished by a wish for Southern success. For perhaps the most powerful element of British feeling disinclining to the cause of the North is and has been *dislike of American manners of thought and speech, and a kind of fear what might befall the world in general, and Great Britain in particular, if a nation of such manners should attain the colossal physical proportions it proposes for itself.* How prevalent this feeling is appears from the constant and exaggerated expressions of disgust at the braggartism and bad taste of the Americans, as shown even in their favourite newspapers and the speeches of their most popular orators. Even Mr. Beecher himself has been cited as lending force to this argument; and people have been called upon to think what would be likely to be the consequences, for the higher culture and for civilization all the world over, if there were a vast nation, some hundreds of millions strong, in America, whose mode of intellectual being, and whose standard of taste could be summed up in the word "Beecherism." Mr. Beecher's recent appearances among us, and especially that at Exeter Hall, will have arrested, it is hoped, this mode of talking of him, and have shown that it is ill-natured and unjust.

Such are a few of the elements of British opinion on the American war, the conflict of which produces that balance or state of equilibrium which has been so singularly maintained, and which has irritated both North and South. It will be observed that the pro-Northern elements of opinion are few and massive, while the pro-Southern elements are more numerous, but more dispersed, and individually of smaller bulk, so that they only act as they do by their aggregate strength. Changes, also, may occur in the relations of the elements; and perhaps, as we said at the outset, Mr. Beecher's stethoscopy has detected one such change at this very moment, favourable, on the whole, to the cause of which he is the orator.

## CURRENT LITERATURE.

### A FRENCH BISHOP ON RENAN'S "VIE DE JÉSUS."

*Lettre de Monseigneur l'Evêque de Grenoble, à l'un de ses Vicaires généraux, sur "La Vie de Jésus."* Par M. E. Renan. (Grenoble: Baratier.)

TO the Continental tourist of this season M. Renan's book on the "Life of Jesus" has presented itself everywhere as one of the most conspicuous phenomena of the day. In those countries in which its circulation is free you can scarcely pass by the humblest book-shop without seeing this volume exposed in the best place in the window. Placards on the walls of provincial towns tell you in large type where the book is to be bought, or what new answer to it has just appeared. You meet with it continually in the pages of the journals, not only of France, but of the neighbouring countries. M. Passaglia advertises a reply to it in his Italian organ; the *Allgemeine Zeitung* discusses it in a series of articles; the *Indé-*

*pendance Belge* taunts M. Renan's opponents with denouncing him only and not answering him. It is abundantly evident that M. Renan has succeeded in *interesting* the public mind of continental Europe: to what extent he is likely to win adherents it would probably be premature to form an opinion.

No doubt most of the pamphlets which have hurried to the attack of M. Renan have been mere expressions of ecclesiastical indignation. But, if that is generally the case, the episcopal letter named at the head of this article is a remarkable exception. It was picked up by the present writer at the small city of Grenoble, where it was printed and published at the Diocesan Press. It must have been rapidly written, as it bears the date of the 25th July. For an unpretentious diocesan publication of this sort, the letter is calculated to excite a good deal of surprise—of its kind it is a masterly piece of controversial criticism. It shows a singularly thorough and ready knowledge of the Gospels, and is so free from Romanistic peculiarities that every word of it might have been written by an Anglican divine. But there are not many divines in England who would prove themselves so expert in Biblical criticism; of our own bench of bishops probably not more than one could have produced anything better in its way than this pamphlet.

The Bishop of Grenoble writes expressly as a Biblical critic. His object is to bring M. Renan's notions to the test of those documents upon which they profess to be founded. It need scarcely be said that this is not to do full justice to M. Renan. If the Bishop can prove the "Vie de Jésus" to be a romance, not firmly grounded in sound historical criticism, he is satisfied. And no doubt to effect this is to do great damage to M. Renan's work. But the question would still remain, of what value is M. Renan's work as a romance? It should be remembered, whatever drawbacks have to be made from the worth of M. Renan's labours, that he is almost the only critic who has brought the new Biblical criticism to the test of life. He has honestly put to himself the question—Rejecting the orthodox belief in Jesus Christ, how are we to realize his nature and life and work? And to this question he has given such an answer as he could. He has presented to us something like a living personage, and not a mere mass of cavils and speculations. The courage and the genius with which he has done this have deserved for him the prodigious success which he has attained. And when a professional critic has lifted the person of Jesus, even as a merely human person, above the region of documentary criticism, it is not for the Christian world to insist upon dragging down the whole question again to the level of disputes about texts.

At the same time it is impossible to separate M. Renan's ideal creation from the histories contained in the Gospels; and, as he professes to have found the life of Jesus, according to his idea of it, in the new aspect which those histories present when the light of criticism is thrown upon them, it is necessary for an opponent to show that M. Renan's idea of Jesus is not supported by a sound and consistent criticism. The Bishop of Grenoble has vigorously assailed M. Renan's whole treatment of the Four Gospels. Every reader of the "Vie de Jésus" must have noticed some self-contradictions, some audacious inferences, some ingenious twistings of New Testament expressions. But few could suppose that the author's light and airy and confident manner has covered such inaccuracy and carelessness as a closer examination has detected. M. Renan's romance, though the author of it is so learned a man, contains as much to offend the learned, as it has to shock the Christian. We select from the Bishop's pamphlet some examples of M. Renan's want of accuracy.

1. M. Renan has laid great stress on the word *λόγια*, occurring in a well-known passage of Papias, preserved by Eusebius, as describing the nature of the really authentic portion of St. Matthew's Gospel. He takes this word as meaning sentences or short sayings, and

holds that, according to indisputable authority, St. Matthew the Apostle composed a collection of our Lord's sayings, which was afterwards translated and amalgamated with traditional narrative. Papias contrasts, M. Renan says, such a collection of "sayings" with the records of the "actions and discourses" of Jesus written down by St. Mark from the instructions of St. Peter. The opposition is between the *λεχθέντα ἢ πραχθέντα* of St. Mark and the *λόγια* of St. Matthew. The Bishop of Grenoble contends that this opposition is entirely imaginary. He quotes and discusses the original passage, which, as he reminds us, is not what Papias himself says, but what Papias reports an older and higher authority to have said. He shows that, in the passage relating to St. Mark, there is no emphasis upon *λεχθέντα ἢ πραχθέντα*, but upon the absence of chronological exactitude in St. Mark's writings, and that the word *λόγια* is used in a way which almost proves it to have been a synonym of *λεχθέντα ἢ πραχθέντα*. St. Matthew, the same authority goes on to state, wrote in order and in the Hebrew language the *λόγια* of the Lord. The Bishop would translate *λόγια* by the indefinite term "oracles," and understand it as embracing all sacred records. He confirms this view by adducing the title of Papias's work, "An Exposition *λογίων κυριακῶν*, of the Oracles of the Lord," and still more by quoting St. Paul's use of the same word, when he says (Rom. iii. 2) that the Jews had the oracles of God entrusted to them. It is quite evident that this word *λόγια* will not bear the strain which M. Renan has put upon it; and with this failure one of his cherished critical conclusions falls to the ground. The Bishop argues with much force that the whole passage from Papias gives a strong support to the authenticity of St. Matthew's Gospel as we have it.

2. Where M. Renan depends upon his own critical instinct, in which, as it will be remembered, he places so much confidence, the Bishop shows that he is hasty and inconsistent. Thus, M. Renan speaks with great decision as to the authenticity of St. Luke's Gospel. He believes that Luke, the companion of St. Paul, was the writer both of the Gospel and of the Acts. "It is a work written entirely by the same hand, and of the most perfect unity." But it is "a second-hand document, compiled from other writings, and the author has not seen the eye-witnesses of what he relates." This is in almost flat contradiction to St. Luke's opening words. The Gospel, M. Renan further says, "was written certainly after the siege of Jerusalem, but shortly after." Now it is difficult to believe that the Acts—the second work—was not written before the destruction of Jerusalem. M. Renan's conclusive proof is the twenty-first chapter, "inseparable from the rest of the work," and containing distinct prophecies relating to the siege. With these opinions as to St. Luke the Bishop bids us compare the following statements as to the Gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark:—"If the Gospel of Luke is dated, those of Matthew and Mark are dated also; for it is certain that the third Gospel is posterior to the two first, and presents the character of a much more advanced *rédaction*." St. Mark's Gospel, then, was written decidedly before St. Luke's—that is, at least in its original form. But, speaking of it as it is now, M. Renan says that St. Mark's is "that one of the three synoptic Gospels which has remained the most ancient, the most original, the one in which there are the fewest additions of later elements." Shortly after, he adds:—"As to St. Luke's work, its historical value is sensibly weaker." Now if, as M. Renan holds, St. Luke's Gospel is almost to a word the same history which was composed by St. Paul's companion, who was, undoubtedly, much in Palestine, and who speaks of himself as in communication with eye-witnesses; if he composed his work laboriously and carefully; if it was written very shortly after the destruction of Jerusalem; if, at the same time, St. Mark's Gospel was written at a perceptibly earlier period; if it is the most original and primitive



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of the three Gospels; if it was written from the instructions of St. Peter; and if it has on these accounts a sensibly higher historical value than St. Luke's,—it would seem to be impossible to overrate the historical value and authenticity of this Gospel. But M. Renan, nevertheless, treats it as if it were entirely untrustworthy, assigning without scruple any portions of it, however large, to subsequent insertion, and always guided simply by what is convenient for his own theory.

Certain personal objections which M. Renan raises to St. Luke as a writer are ably disposed of by the Bishop. But he complains with most force of the treatment which St. John's Gospel has received in the "Vie de Jésus." M. Renan believes this Gospel to have been the work of St. John the Apostle, and he accordingly places its historical value in some respects higher than that even of St. Mark. But he makes "a capital distinction between the narrative and the discourses put in the mouth of Jesus." The narrative contains the recollections of the friend of Jesus; the discourses are the wearisome inventions of the Gnostic. That is to say, the friend of Jesus—whose memory of his Master was still so fresh, and who, as the Bishop reminds us, is peculiarly emphatic about *truth*, both in his own writings and in the sayings of Jesus which he records—has the impudent audacity to ascribe to Jesus, with details of consummate art, long discourses, which he knew very well were entirely foreign to his Master's habit of thought, but which contained speculations which the foolish old man had picked up in Asia Minor. This irreverent forger was impelled to the writing of his book, thinks M. Renan, by jealousy of St. Peter and a desire to put himself forward. There is something singularly effective in the two eloquent passages in which the Bishop meets these accusations ("Lettre," pp. 41, 45) by collecting the signs of self-omission, and the places doing honour to St. Peter in this Gospel. "Other disciples," he felicitously remarks, "take part in the numerous dialogues of this Gospel—Andrew, Philip, Thomas, Simon, Judas, and, above all, Peter. As for himself, St. John speaks but twice, once in a question which Peter bade him ask (xiii. 26), the second time in a remark addressed to Peter (xxi. 7)."

The Bishop recognises to the utmost the theological character and purpose of St. John's Gospel, and does not at all deny the great superficial differences which are observable between the discourses in St. John and in the Synoptics. In order to account in part for these differences, he appeals to M. Renan himself, who even exaggerates the great contrast between the life of Jesus in Galilee and in Jerusalem. He points out that M. Renan, after deciding that the discourses in St. John cannot possibly be authentic, because they are so unlike the *λόγια* in St. Matthew, uses them to prove the melancholy change which, according to his notion, had come over the character of Jesus through his conflicts with the Pharisees at Jerusalem.

3. In defending the moral character of Jesus against M. Renan's misrepresentations, the Bishop of Grenoble speaks in a wholesome Christian tone, which is particularly welcome in a Roman Catholic ecclesiastic. One of the monstrous assertions of the "Vie de Jésus" is that, towards the end of his life, "Il était, si on peut le dire, totalement hors de la nature: la famille, l'amitié, la patrie, n'avaient plus aucun sens pour lui." The Bishop meets this by affirming that, "Then more than ever Jesus Christ showed himself to be animated by all the tender and legitimate sentiments of our nature." He quotes evidence from the biographer's own pages, the weeping over Jerusalem, the words addressed to the daughters of Jerusalem, the sympathy with Martha and Mary and Lazarus, the tender love shown towards the disciples, the commendation of his mother, under the agony of the cross, to the disciple whom he loved. Another fault which M.

Renan has discovered in Jesus is his acquiescence in fraud and falsehood. The Bishop points out how shameful this would have been in one who insisted so much upon truth, and charged his enemies so solemnly with their falseness; and he exclaims—

De quel droit, je vous prie, ose-t-on porter une pareille accusation contre Jésus Christ? Il n'a pas connu deux morales: l'une pour lui-même, l'autre pour ses disciples. Ce n'est pas lui qui a posé le fondement des fraudes pieuses. Il n'avait pas deux doctrines comme les philosophes: une pour les adeptes, l'autre pour le peuple. Il ne le méprisait pas comme eux; il ne le croyait pas incapable de parvenir à la vérité divine. Sa gloire était d'annoncer cette vérité aux pauvres. Jamais il n'a cru, jamais il n'a pensé que le monde pût être sauvé par le mensonge. Il l'a poursuivi dans toutes ses applications, sous toutes ses formes.

At the end of his "Letter" the Bishop dwells briefly upon the theology of Jesus. He exposes the falsity of saying, as M. Renan does, that it is only in the Gospel of St. John that Jesus applies to himself the title of Son of God, quoting passages from the other Gospels in which the name occurs; and then he calls attention to "that reciprocity between the Father and the Son, between the Son and the Father, which is so often marked in St. John," and observes that in the other Gospels also, as in St. John, "the Son is the one supreme revealer of the Father." It is evident that the Bishop of Grenoble is well acquainted not only with the letter of Scripture—that, whilst recognising the diversities of the Four Gospels, he has seized their meeting-point and unity.

J. LL. D.

## LEO: A NOVEL.

Leo: A Novel. By Dutton Cook. (Smith, Elder, & Co.)

IN one of the charming "asides" with which Mr. Thackeray interrupts the regular action of his novels, he states that the reason why he did not introduce an element of crime and murder in order to heighten the interest of "Pendennis" was the unfortunate fact that he had never had the personal acquaintance of a murderer or a burglar. We always wish that modern novelists would bear in mind this wholesome piece of wisdom. Nobody can evolve a criminal as the German did the camel, out of the depths of his own consciousness. To describe professional criminals you must have known them and lived amongst them. Now the class of ladies and gentlemen who write modern novels are happily not likely to have attained this peculiar knowledge. However well you flatter yourself you know life, you must draw the limit somewhere; and even the wildest of Bohemians never becomes intimate with cut-throats and assassins. Mr. Dutton Cook will pardon us for believing that he never met with a M. Anatole—who is the stage-villain of his story—in the flesh. We do not profess to be a bit wiser than Mr. Cook as to the habits and customs of criminals, but we feel pretty sure that they are not like those of the murderous Frenchman whom he has attempted to depict. There are, no doubt, writers like Balzac who possess the strange faculty of throwing themselves, as it were, into the minds of the people they describe, and of understanding what would be the nature of a man under conditions with which they themselves have no personal acquaintance. But this peculiar genius is so exceptional that Mr. Cook will not take it as a depreciatory remark on our part if we do not give him credit for its possession. Most men who have lived in the world have had the misfortune at different times to come across the paths of scamps and blacklegs and demireps; and, therefore, this order of reprobates is depicted in the novels of the day with considerable fidelity. But, when you come to a lower grade of crime, any acquaintance between the world of letters and the world of prisons is wanting utterly.

Our reason in making these remarks is that Mr. Cook has marred the excellence of a novel of unusual ability by attempting to in-

troduce an element of criminal scoundrelism. The story, if we could cut out this episode of crime, is a simple and natural one enough. Arnold Page, the hero of the novel, is a favoured child of fortune. Young, handsome, clever, the possessor of a landed property of several thousands a year, he has won the affections of a lovely girl, Leonora, or "Leo" Carr, the heiress to a very large fortune. Everything has been for the best for Arnold in the best possible of worlds. To do him justice he has not in any way abused his position. A man of refined tastes, he has collected round him a set of artistic and literary friends, who drink his claret and smoke his cigars and lounge about his chambers in the Temple, and, for a wonder, do not laugh at him in return. His sole faults are that he is rather indolent, somewhat too fond of the ease of a half-fashionable, half-Bohemian career, and not altogether sufficiently convinced of the treasure he has won in the heart of Leo Carr. Unfortunately, Arnold has a brother-in-law, a Mr. Lomax, of the Wafer Stamp Office, who is a well-connected and respectable scamp of the type that any day may be met with in society. Mr. Lomax, through Arnold's youth and inexperience, has been allowed to have the management of the Page estates, and has involved the property by unsuccessful speculations, conducted without the knowledge of the owner. In order to cover his losses, Lomax persuades his brother-in-law to buy a number of shares which he held in very doubtful companies, and to become a director on the board of some South American mine. The manner in which Arnold is induced to enter these speculations, for which he has absolutely no inclination, by a vague idea that he ought to have some serious business in life, is depicted with remarkable insight into character. Of course, the companies all turn out bubbles; a gigantic smash ensues; and Arnold, as one of the few honest and substantial men connected with the concerns, is singled out as the victim by the infuriated creditors. Nothing can be better in its way than the description of the final break-up of the Dom Ferdinando mine. The story is too long to quote; but we cannot refrain from giving the following extract:—

I am anxious not to weary the reader with the minutiae of the misfortunes of this dreadful Dom Ferdinando company. Information touching the collapse of bubble companies is to be gathered from many and convenient sources. In the columns of the newspaper are to be found revelations identical with the story of this shameful undertaking. I refer the reader to these. The case was a very glaring one. It seemed to be streaked in all directions with fraud, as a human body with veins. It was so leavened with chicanery, that the whole affair bore the aspect of a gigantic swindle. It was very hard for innocent men to disentangle their innocence from the *débris* of dishonesty. It was harder still to answer the question ceaselessly screamed out by an infuriated body of swindled proprietors—What has become of our money? No one seemed to know; only that there was nothing left. Not a halfpenny in specie, and a terrible list of liabilities. The large sums received from the shareholders had ebbed away through the fingers of the directors, and sunk, as it were, through some great hole in the floor beneath the board-room table. There was endless confusion. The books of the company were handed over to professional accountants; but there was no one who could give any explanation. The Storks, to a man, had disappeared—for the most part, in some mysterious way, enormously enriched by the whole business. Whether the company thrived or failed, sunk or swam, in its poor days as in its palmy, these clever gentlemen managed somehow to derive benefit from the undertaking, and then at critical moments contrived to elude pursuit and to suddenly disappear, pretty much as ingenious evil spirits down trapdoors in pantomimes. *Sauve qui peut* had been the cry as on the occasion of other crises, and many had made good their escape. The agent at the mouth of the mine; the manager and director in London; the Scotch secretary; every underling who, by any means, could thrust his finger into the pie, upon the chance of a sovereign sticking to it as he withdrew it, these had clean gone, past all finding out. There remained—upon whom to



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wreak the wrath of the proprietors—the wretched Indian colonels, and the other King Logs of the Board of Directors; including, of course, Mr. Arnold Page, of Oakmere Court.

As Arnold's fortunes grew more and more embarrassed, Mr. Carr became not unnaturally alarmed about his daughter's prospects, and insisted on the engagement being suspended. The smash comes at last; Arnold is arrested for debt, made a bankrupt, and ruined. His engagement is finally broken off; and then he learns too late how deeply he had really loved the woman whom he had lost by his own folly. Misunderstandings ensue between the parted lovers. Leo engages herself to an honest but imbecile nobleman, Lord Dolly Fairfield. Arnold offers his hand to his niece's governess, but is refused, and is about to leave England for ever as a broken-hearted and ruined man, when old Mr. Carr relents, and allows Leo to follow the choice of her heart. Arnold goes into business in an iron-foundry with which his father-in-law is connected, marries Leo, who has jilted Lord Dolly in an utterly unjustifiable manner, and lives happily ever afterwards.

The story reads simple enough; and, to a certain extent, it is eminently simple. Any one at all versed in novel-reading knows from the beginning that Arnold and Leo are ultimately to be joined in holy wedlock. The merit of the book lies in the description of character with which it abounds. The heroine Leo is very pleasant and very life-like. The Lomax household is admirably drawn; and the minor characters of the novel—Jack Lackington, Mrs. Simmons, and the Rev. Purton Wood—are sketches which remain impressed on the reader's memory even after he has laid down the book. This last-named gentleman bears a family-resemblance to the Rev. Charles Honeyman, so well known to all the readers of the "Newcomes," except that he does not possess the shiftless good-nature, which redeems the failings of Mr. Thackeray's parson. When Arnold Page is arrested he meets the Rev. Mr. Wood, as a brother in distress, in the sponging-house where he is locked up; and the manner in which the clerical delinquent discloses his misfortunes is too good not to be reported.

"In justice to myself, it is only right that you should be furnished with the particulars of this unhappy business. I know nothing of business; the many calls upon my time during a long life of earnest toil, though I say it, have been of how different a nature! I am a mere child in affairs of this kind—quite helpless in all matters of a pecuniary kind. I fear I neglected to do what I ought; I permitted time to elapse. It seems I was not ready at some precise moment with a sum of money that was expected of me. I really find a difficulty in explaining, even in myself comprehending, how the thing occurred: and I fear I am using all sorts of untechnical terms. But I found myself sued upon the bill, and served with what I think is called a writ. I let things take their course, presuming that at last they would leave me at peace; but this Moss grew very angry, and was unwearied in his persecution of me. My furniture he could not touch; it was secured by a bill of sale—I believe that to be the correct title of the document, the nature of which I am quite at a loss to understand—a bill of sale given to a third party—"

"Really, Mr. Wood—"

"One moment longer and I have done. Moss then sought to arrest me. You know we are on the borders of Woodlandshire; I was down in another county, coming over to the service on the Sunday, and returning the same day. That terrible Moss! He had writs of execution out against me in three counties—I was taken yesterday afternoon. Pray be warned by my example, my dear young friend: never put your name to a bill! However great your necessity, never do that!"

The defect of Leo as a work of art consists in the introduction of a sensational criminal element. A mysterious French spy, M. Anatole, and an equally mysterious Englishman with a score of aliases, have an unintelligible plot against the welfare of a drunken, broken officer, Captain Gill, whose daughter, for some reason unknown, they desire to get into their power. Their plots,

which never come to anything, run through the whole story, and give opportunity for a number of strong sensational effects. Here, for instance, is the account of a life-and-death struggle between M. Anatole and the victim whom he has driven mad with drink:—

Each had as close a grasp of the other as he could secure, but the Frenchman was underneath; he had been taken at a disadvantage; in point of strength he was terribly overmatched; and for the first moment or two he was nearly paralyzed by the paroxysm of alarm under which he was labouring. He began to perceive, however, that he was engaged in a deadly wrestle with a man who was deaf to all cries for mercy, who was mad, whom it was necessary to oppose with all the force he could summon. He gave one scream for help; it was echoed by a mocking yell from the madman; and then, with something of the courage and strength of despair, he nerved himself for the encounter. So they rolled, and tossed, and struggled upon the floor,—panting, growling, tearing, snarling, struggling: it was more like a fight between two wild animals than between human beings. Monsieur Anatole felt that he was mastered by his terrible foe; yet still he struggled on in hopes that assistance might arrive and the tide of battle be turned in his favour. But his strength was leaving him; he grew more and more faint. If he had ever felt any doubts about his age, they must have been effectually cleared away at that moment. He was a poor infirm old man. Another cry for help died away in his parched throat. The madman's hand was twisted in his cravat, dragging it painfully tight; he could feel the sharp knuckles driving into his neck; already his mouth opened, his face was distorted, his eyes were starting from his head in the agonies of strangulation. He felt his head raised repeatedly by the madman's hold upon his neckerchief and then struck violently upon the floor. The pain was acute, he felt half-stunned, the room seemed to swim round, and fiery stars to dance before his eyes. He roused himself for a final effort. He had fixed both his hands in his foe's thick crumpled matted hair; his fingers were tightly wreathed in it. He tore at it violently, and then released one hand to dash it with all his force in the captain's face. Pained, blinded, he loosened his grasp of the Frenchman's neck; Monsieur Anatole moved, endeavouring to rise; he felt the hot, noisome breath of the madman beating upon his face. Another moment and he was free! his foe was shaking upon the floor, shrieking with hysterical laughter, holding in his hand the dense, black, curl-clustered wig of the Frenchman.

Mr. Cook can write so much better than this that we would urge him strongly to leave descriptions fitted for tales of thrilling horror to the regular manufacturers of cheap emotion. Let him stick to what he has seen and known, and he may fulfil the remarkable promise given in many parts of this his latest work. E. D.

## GRIMM'S FAIRY-TALES.

*Household Stories collected by the Brothers Grimm. Newly Translated; with Two Hundred and Forty Illustrations by E. H. Wehnert. (Routledge, Warne, and Routledge.)*

*German Fairy Tales and Popular Stories, as told by Gammer Grethel. Translated from the Collection of MM. Grimm by Edgar Taylor. With Illustrations from designs by George Cruikshank and Ludwig Grimm. (H. G. Bohn.)*

"Come, children, gather round the hearth—  
I promised you a tale to-night:  
Of sorrow shall it be, or mirth?  
Of baron bold, or lady bright?  
Come, little apple-cheeks, choose you:  
What shall it be—what shall I tell?  
'A fairy-tale that's true—all true.'  
Good, blue-eyes, you have chosen well!"

AND so the little ones sit around, and eyes get large and luminous, and small dimpled hands are clapped with delight, and little ears listen right eagerly to the tales of fay-maids and goblin-men which the brothers Grimm learnt from the Frau Viehmännin, the "Gammer Grethel" of their books; or, with more thoughtful interest, to the graceful legends of Andersen and the sweet metrical tales in the "Fairy Family," which tell of tiny beings possessing the graces which make childhood noble, and living in an atmosphere purer than that of earth. And so the rays from fay-land shine into their hearts: for is

not every child born into the world a fairy—sent to pass a time upon earth, even as Robin Goodfellow, son to the Fairy King, was sent from the jewelled palace of Avalon? But, alas! few rays of fairy-born light penetrate into the circle of the practical world, where an industry which pays cent. per cent. is worshipped; and none into the domains of science, where all coin is tried by natural laws, and scepticism is accounted a virtue.

It seems fruitless to inquire from whence sprang the fay-people, the trolls, hill-men, brownies, kobolds, moss-women, and necks, and which is the country of their birth. So many differing opinions have been given by those who have tried to make the fair sprites amenable to laws of migration, that we are content to accept the trustful conclusion of Mr. Palgrave: "Whence they came we know full well from the lips of one who had sojourned there (Thomas of Ercildoune, the prophet-bard of Scotland)—they came from their own green land, the ever-bright Realm of Fairie." And therefore it is that, with a like unquestioning confidence, we believe all that legends tell us, and seek to lodge the rays of tender light which stream to us from Avalon in the hearts of our children. For the fays themselves have long ceased to come on errands of charity and love. The last of the Welsh Tylwith Teg (fay-family) was seen, so legends tell, on Castell Dinas Bran, the crag which overlooks Llangollen; and there are now no dancing Fées in the Lorraine forests, nor Elle-maids in that of Bréziande; neither are people "in sorest need" aided now by Monaciello in Italy, or by wood-spirits in the Fatherland, or by O'Donogues in Ireland, or by green-haired Rusalkis in Russia, or by the brown dwarfs, so beautiful and good, guiders of lost children, in Rügen. No Metallarii (mountain-dwarfs) now aid the miner—a race of fays so wise and good that the "Heldenbuch" says of them:—

God produced the dwarfs because the mountains lay waste and useless, and valuable stores of silver and gold, with gems and pearls, were concealed in them. He made them right wise and crafty, that they should distinguish good and bad; and He gave them art and wisdom, so that they built them hollow hills.

Of like kind, may be, to the wondrous hill-palaces of the trolls, which, we are told in the "Fairy Family," were

Uplifted on

Ten thousand pillars of crimson stone,  
And each pillar wreathed from roof to floor,  
And the roof itself encrusted o'er  
With lamps, wherever a lamp may be,  
As thick as the blooms on an apple-tree.

Cousins to these, in fay-land kinship, are the Norwegian trolls, descended, so saith the legend, from Adam's spirit-wife, who was helpmeet to him before the creation of Eve; though, in another part of the country, a purely human origin is given them. According to this story, Eve heard the voice of the Creator as she was washing the children. Having been dilatory in the work she feared reproaches, and hid away the younger ones in the bushes, presenting the elder ones as the whole of her family, a deception which drew upon her the sentence—"What thou hast tried to hide from God shall be hidden from men." So they disappeared; and from them in time sprang the hill-folk.

Another important branch of this family are the Jinns of Eastern romance, who are said to study the perturbations of the earth, and to possess a very excellent wisdom in the matter—an employment which recommends them to the consideration of Mr. Mallet and M. Alexis Perrey.

Fay-land story is not in any sense a fruition of modern times—in every age and clime and country it has been recognised and adopted. Many writers of learning have traced out the similitudes which exist between those of the eastern and western worlds; some tales, as the story of the "Water of Life," are traceable to rabbinical lore, and have close resemblances in the "Arabian Nights." The tale of "Fritz and his Friends" has a basis in common with legends current among the Canadian Indians and the Calmuc Tartars; the adventures of Tom Thumb have been connected both with



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the mysteries of Hindoo mythology and the grand fables of the Edda; and the Persian story-book of Tuhti Nameh reflects most of the fairy-faith of Europe. But, after all the labours of German scholars, much of this pleasant and nourishing mind-food is yet to be garnered in. Quite lately a new mine of fairy lore was introduced to us from Hungary, rich in weirdest fancy, and indicative of the existence of others, yet unworked. No one has collected the romances current among the gipsy tribes; and, to our knowledge, many exist, wild and strange and beautiful. Those who have visited Somorja, the gipsy metropolis in Transylvania, on a *fête* day, and seen the three red-trousered veterans come riding in on one black pony, chanting the song of mystery—

Jhajnáré, benyázkóré ddum dum uzsárdé,  
Csakabébé, jó irlágé, tude rude mángé—

and witnessed the ceremonies of the day, have concluded that we know as little about the legendary faith they cherish as we do about the real origin of themselves. Will Professor Liebrecht of Liege undertake the work?

It is unnecessary to give in detail the contents of these newly-translated stories. Both translations are, beyond doubt, better than those which have beforetime appeared—not excepting the quarto edition, with its violently-coloured illustrations, which appeared last year, and must have been thrown upon the book-market by thousands. But “picture-writing,” when illustrating such tales, has so sure a value, that we must say somewhat about the illustrations. Gammer Grethel’s “effigy,” forming the frontispiece to Mr. Bohn’s volume, has all the quaintness of an etching by Bega, the solidarity of the kindly old dame typing her character as truly as the wild fun of Mr. Cruikshank’s fairy elves (which are reproduced from an earlier edition) speak to us of their natures. Messrs. Routledge’s edition is literally peppered with pictures, though some are, perhaps, of too thoughtful a cast to bring smiles to rosy lips. If M. Gustave Doré had as pure a pencil as Mr. Wehnert, what a wonderful book the “Household Stories” might be made! but the hand which illustrated Rabelais and the “Contes Drolatiques” is too gross and wastefully indulgent to touch the sweet and simple lives of the fay-folk.

Of the tales themselves, whether drawn from fairy-lore, or from the doings—all pleasingly impossible—of beasts and birds, we need say nothing. Far and wide they are known, and love has attended knowledge: love for the subject itself, which, possessing no reliable data, may yet be studied with safety and profit—a most curious and pleasant anomaly!—and love for the memory of him who went from us but a month ago, leaving them to the world as an imperishable legacy. But, while cherishing, for the sake of our little ones, the tales of fay-land, let us not lose recollection of the hills and groves and dingles regarded in the childhood of nations as their sacred haunts. One such spot—Tomnahuirich hill, near Inverness, long celebrated as the meeting-place of all the northern fay-clans—is about to be laid out as a cemetery. In legendary days offerings of elfin treasures were laid upon its green top, for the acceptance of the king—for even fays had flowers too rare and jewels too costly to keep. What they are fabled to have done with joy, we are about to do in mingled sorrow and hope. Like them, we shall offer precious things, even our child-darlings—fairies of the home—at the Highest Court of Fairie!

G. E. R.

## MOMMSEN’S ROME: VOL. III.

*The History of Rome.* By Theodor Mommsen. Translated, with the Author’s sanction and additions, by the Rev. W. P. Dickson. Vol. III. (Bentley.)

THE volume before us contains the Fourth Book, called the “Revolution,” and bears the ominous motto from Goethe:—

“Aber sie treiben’s toll,  
Ich fürcht’ es breche.”  
Nicht jeden Wochenschluss  
Macht Gott die Zeche.

The new German edition, from which this translation has been made, differs little from the former ones, except that the recently discovered fragments of Licinianus have been made use of, as far as they throw a new light on men and things, from the period of the battle of Pydna to the revolt of Lepidus. The ninety years over which this book extends—forty of profound peace, fifty of almost constant revolution—from the Gracchi to Sulla, are the most inglorious epoch known in Roman history. The state is bankrupt, internally and externally, and utter anarchy, ending in final dissolution—stayed off for a while, first by liberal, then by bloody despotism—stared in the face of those who had eyes to see and a heart to mourn over the grandest commonwealth that the world has ever seen. The bitterest feature of this bitter time was that even hope and effort failed the clear-seeing patriot. “The most sagacious statesman was in the plight of the physician to whom it is equally painful to prolong or to abridge the agony of his patient!” It would be late in the day to speak of the merits and demerits of this the most brilliant “History of Rome” that has been written in modern times. It has been before the world ever since 1854, and not a voice but has loudly paid homage to the gigantic learning of the author: eminent in nearly every branch of the science of Roman antiquities—its philology, law, numismatics, literature, fine arts, religion—all the civil and social institutions, in fact, of the once mistress of the world and those of most of the peoples under her sway. On the other hand, the brilliancy which not rarely plays with paradoxes, and by a *genial* (in the German sense of the word) sleight-of-hand turns uncomfortable arguments out of court, or by harassing cross-examinations makes them bear witness against their own better convictions, has brought upon the gifted author equally often the bitterest reproaches. Into all this, however, we have, even if we had the wish, not the space to enter at a moment when we have merely to announce the completion of a fresh volume of the translation. Mr. Mommsen has written his book *cum ira et studio*; and this verdict, we doubt not, will be endorsed by every competent reader. It is not a work for beginners.

The volume before us first treats of the subject Countries down to the times of the Gracchi, then describes the Reform Movement and Tiberius Gracchus—à propos of which chapter, we would recommend to Mr. Mommsen, as well as every one who really cares for honest historical truth, a very careful perusal of Ampère’s “Luttes de la Liberté à Rome—Caton et les Gracches,” in last month’s *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The Rule of the Restoration follows. The Peoples of the North, the Attempt of Marius at Revolution and the Attempt of Drusus at Reform—farther, the Revolt of the Italians, and the Sulpician Revolution, the East and King Mithridates—are the subjects of the next chapters. “Cinna and Sulla” and “The Sullan Constitution” close, as far as historical events are concerned, this epoch. But, if ever we felt strikingly Mr. Mommsen’s extraordinary powers, it has been in the three concluding chapters, called “The Commonwealth and its Economy,” “Nationality, Religion, and Education,” and “Literature and Art.” The immensity of labour brought to bear upon this portion is something amazing. Every scrap and every stone that have survived the enormous deluge which swallowed up the antique world has been pressed into the service of the historiographer, and is made to tell a tale so eloquent, so stirring, as only genius of the highest order can cause broken stones and fragmentary leaves to tell. How the City of the Seven Hills was doomed, inevitably, hopelessly; how her honesty and her glory and her pride fell from her in tatters; and how she prepared, for the sake of another brief span of existence, to barter away everything that life was worth living for—all this is drawn, in those last chapters, with the hand of a most consummate artist.

Strange flashes, however, sometimes hiss through them, and the classical calm of the description breaks down in a bitter or tearful allusion to certain doings in the Europe of a more modern date.

It is from this portion of the volume that we will endeavour to trace a few brief outlines:—

Extravagance, sensual enjoyment, fastidiousness and frivolity, were the features of Roman life in those days. The “bloods” and the *parvenus*, the titled and the monied, ran a foolish break-neck race for luxury. Not that luxury which pervades, like an exquisite, indefinable perfume, the halls and the *salons* of the mental aristocracy, and which appeals only to the senses and minds of the few initiated who belong to the small band: not the refined luxury, which presupposes the highest mental and artistic culture;—but that luxury which is coarse and vulgar, and dauby and nauseous to the heart and the intellect, and which costs very, very much money. The nation’s taste, notwithstanding the glorious sunshine of Hellenism that had lighted up the queen of cities not so long before, was become more and more coarse every day. The popular festivals again received additional zest from the brutalities of animal hunts, that had ceased since the days of Cato, when the importation of transmarine beasts of prey was prohibited. Gladiatorial games, funeral solemnities—which Marius Æmilius Lepidus ordered in his testament not to exceed in his case the sum of 1,000,000 ases, or £10,200, “forasmuch as true honour consisted not in empty pomp, but in the remembrance of personal and ancestral merits”—and the rest of these silly, often brutal, exhibitions ate up the substance which had been accumulating for centuries, in the East and in the West, in the space of a few brief seasons. Baïæ and the surroundings of the Bay of Naples were the El Dorado of these sea-side loungers of noble idleness. Games of hazard, with stakes worthy of the golden youth, were common diversions. The woollen dresses of the Roman matron of the days “of our grandmothers” were replaced by the costliest silks and gauze fabrics, made rather to display than to conceal the figure. Sump-tuary laws foolishly endeavoured to stop the insane extravagance in foreign perfumeries. The acme of gentility, however, was a sumptuous board. As much as £1050 were paid for a good cook. Salt-water tanks were specially constructed in the houses along the coast, in order that the sea-fish and oysters might be always ready in their native freshness. A dinner at which the entire fowl was served, and not a few tit-bits from it only, or where the guests were supposed to eat from the different dishes, instead of simply “*fourchetting*” them, was a low, poverty-stricken dinner. Foreign delicacies, Greek wine, bands of musicians, dancing-girls, plate of enormous value, together with all the most costly luxury of furniture, carpets, hangings, bronzes, and the like, constituted the primary necessities of a well-appointed table. If the Carthaginian ambassadors had once made merry over their encountering the same silver plate at every dinner to which they were invited, that of Marius Drusus, the tribune of the people in 91, weighed 10,000 pounds of silver—something over £40,000; and it must not be forgotten, for the proper estimation of the value, that the workmanship was paid for at the rate of from fifteen to eighteen times the value of the metal, and that Lucius Crassus, for instance, paid about £1050 for a pair of silver cups only in 95 B.C. Marriage and the rearing of children were at a discount. The agrarian laws had put a premium upon them. Metellus Macedonius, a man whose honourable domestic life and “host of children” were “the admiration of his contemporaries,” described the state of matrimony, while advocating its enforcement upon the burgesses as a “burden, of which, if we could, we should all keep clear. But it is proper to have regard rather to the permanent weal than to our own brief comfort.” Or can there be anything more piquantly telling, than the story of the two



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noblemen who in 92 acted as the supreme masters of public morals—the one reproaching the other, in public, with having shed tears over the death of his pride and glory—viz., the finest *muræna* in his fish-pond—the other retaliating that, although his colleague had buried three wives, he had shed tears over none? And take the following quotation from the speech of an orator describing in the open forum the doings of a senatorial juryman in the midst of his boon companions at the time fixed for the cause, with which Mommsen closes this chapter:—

"They play hazard, delicately perfumed, surrounded by their mistresses. As the afternoon advances, they summon the servant, and bid him make enquiries at the comitium what has occurred in the forum, who has spoken for or against the new project of law, what tribes have voted for and what against it. At length they go themselves to the judgment-seat, just early enough not to bring the process down on their own neck. . . . Reluctantly they come to the tribunal and give audience to the parties. Those who are concerned bring forward their cause. The juryman orders the witnesses to come forward; he himself goes aside. When he returns he declares that he has heard everything, and asks for the documents. He looks into the writings; he can hardly keep his eyes open for wine. When he therefore withdraws to consider his sentence, he says to his companions, 'What concern have I with these tiresome people? Why should we not rather go to drink a cup of musle mixed with Greek wine, and accompany it with a fat fieldfare and a good fish—a veritable pike from the Tiber Island?' "All this," our author adds, "was, no doubt, very ridiculous; but was it not a very serious matter that such things were subjects of ridicule?"

Perhaps the most striking chapter in the whole book is the last, which treats of the state of decadence in which literature and art present themselves to our view, from the death of Ennius to the beginning of the Ciceronian age. The ominous lights which the author casts sometimes upon the things of the present out of the mirror of the past are truly startling. The higher kinds of literature—such as epos, tragedy, history—had died out at that period, or been arrested in their development. The subordinate kinds—the translation and imitation of the intrigue piece, the farce, the pamphlet, both in rhyme and in prose—are the only *genres* cultivated. The chief representative of the national comedy of the time, Terence, seemed, indeed, destined from the beginning to restore to Attic comedy that cosmopolitan character which it had in some measure lost by being too much Romanized by men like Nævius, Plautus, and the like; and the contrast between Terence and Plautus is by our historian drawn with a few master-strokes, which indelibly impress themselves upon the mind, and once for all leave there the vivid impression of the character of the two. The lazy Plautine hostelry, the very unconstrained but very charming damsels, with the hosts duly corresponding, the sabre-rattling troopers, the slave-world painted with an altogether peculiar humour, whose heaven is the cellar and whose fate is the lash, have disappeared in Terence, or, rather, undergone improvement. Terence has a "moral" tendency. In the "Hecyra" there appears at the close, as a delivering angel, a virtuous courtesan—and the Roman public hissed her. Plautus abounds in burlesque turns and witty sayings, in alliterations and newly-coined terms, in pun and in slang; while Terence, who writes only for the "good," keeps to symmetry, correctness, and epigrammatically-turned sententious phrases. And, little as the transition from the coarse to the dull is a progress in an artistic point of view, just as little is the transition from downright obscenity and coarseness of Plautus improved by Terence's "accommodation-morality." After Terence came nobody; and a competent art-critic of the period declared that the new comedies were even worse than the bad new pennies. Farce revived at that time. Plot was no object, but caricature—the broader the better. Particular classes, situations, solemnities, both

private and public, were welcome subjects. "Marriage," the "First of March," "Harlequin Candidate," "Transalpine Gauls," are some of the favourite representations; while the sacristan, the soothsayer, the bird-seer, the physician, the publican, the painter, fisherman, baker, and more particularly the fullers, constantly pass across the stage. Nor is rural economy forgotten. Titles such as "The Cow," "The Ass," "The Sow," "The Sick Boar," "Harlequin Farmer," "The Countryman," "The Poultry-Yard," abound. The principal figure in these "screaming" dramas was always *Manus*, the stupid yet artful servant, a filthy glutton, hideous to look at, always in love, and always getting in his own way and that of everybody else, who receives all the kicks and cuffs that are to be had. He is "Manus Miles," "Manus Copo," "Manus Virgo," "Manus Esul," "Manus Gemini," &c., &c. At the same time upholstery was to replace the real dignity and grandeur of the genuine drama, as mountebanks and a rabble of actors took possession of the stage. Cliques and claqueurs, decorations and machineries, artistically-painted scenery and audible thunder—nay, decorations changed by a mere turn of the scenes—these are the sole glories of which the drama of those days, on which enormous sums were spent, can boast. In poetry absolutely nothing is to be recorded of that period, with the exception of the sarcastic verses of Lucilius, the *Béranger* of the age. In history there is Polybius alone—the dreadfully jejune and unimaginative foreigner, to whom, however, we are indebted more than to any other author for real information. In contrast to him stand the native chroniclers, the most wretched, stupid, and credulous compilers of wretched, stupid, commonplace doings—dull dogs, in fact, who are not even to be trusted in what they record with the "tiresome exactness of a notary." Memoirs, letters, speeches, pamphlets of all kinds, swamped the market; but very few were worth preserving, like the letters of Cornelia, the mother of the Gracchi, the political speeches of Gaius Lælius, Gaius Titius, and some others. Of all professions, law was most in vogue, and of all sciences, philology. Painting and sculpture were at zero; but connoisseurship and the mania of collecting flourished vigorously, as did antiquarian investigation. The youth of the nation was spent. Alexandrianism was drawing nigh. The commonwealth itself, unable to live and unable to die, seemed instinctively to wait for one great and mighty hand, which, while crushing its liberties, should for a brief period raise it again to its pristine vigour and brilliancy. And no doubt it was the better for the interests of Rome the more quickly and thoroughly a despot set aside all remnants of the ancient free constitution and invented new forms and expressions for the moderate measure of human prosperity for which absolutism leaves room.

To Mr. Dickson the best thanks of all English readers are due. He has not only transplanted one of the most brilliant productions of modern Germany into British soil, but has done it in a manner to convince the reader on every page of his thorough competency. And the task required not only the ripest scholarship, but also the rare capacity of transforming classical German into readable English.

E. D.—h.

## GEORGE SAND'S LAST WORK.

*Mademoiselle de la Quintinie.* By George Sand. Reprinted from the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. (Paris: Michel Lévy.)

THIS book is an attempt, and a powerful attempt, to grapple with a problem which underlies many of the moral controversies of our time. Is the highest condition of the soul to be attained by obedience to the natural laws of human life or by their renunciation? Is self-development or self-abnegation the true principle of progress? George Sand has treated the matter from the standpoint of Romanism, wherein the doctrine of

self-abnegation assumes its extremest type, and therefore can best be criticised and exposed. But we should err very much if we supposed that our Protestantism has yet extirpated the root of this error, although it does not crop out upon the surface of English life in the frightful forms it sometimes assumes in the church of the Trappist and the Jesuit. Rather might we imagine that the old Gnostic idea of a different God for the spiritual and the material world were still admitted in our theology when we observe how often the ascetic renunciation of natural pleasures and natural freedom is held up as *in itself* a virtue, and how the physical laws of health and life are continually disregarded among us, not on the grounds of their *inferior* sanctity to moral laws, but as if they possessed no sanctity at all, and were by no means to be attributed to the same Divine lawgiver. Thus the problem argued by George Sand is one of interest far beyond the bounds of the Church of Rome, albeit the immediate point she discusses is the relative sacredness of natural ties and of Romish ascetic practices.

We can hardly too much commend the tone of this book. With the exception of a few errors of taste peculiar to Gallican novelists (such as making the heroine discourse with her lover as assuredly none *but* a French girl in or out of a novel would ever discourse), the subject is treated in a manner worthy of its deep and solemn importance. We have left far behind us not only the old Voltairian levity, but even that spirit which a few years ago pervaded all discussions of the relations of "priests" to "women and families," and treated the matter solely on the low and obvious grounds of the evil results of the confessional on female modesty of feeling, and of the possible abuse by the priest of his influence for the worst purposes. The purport of George Sand's book is to examine the ascetic system, not at its worst, but at its best—not to expose its contingent abuses, but the inherent evils of its principles. The tale which serves for a basis for this discussion is a very simple one. A young man, son of one of the first philosophical writers of the day, becomes attached to a singularly clear-headed and warm-hearted girl, who lives with her grandfather in a certain fine old château, which visitors to Savoy will have no difficulty in recognising as that of Bourdeau, overhanging the Lac du Bourget. This young lady, Mlle. de la Quintinie, is a devout Catholic, who early resolved to devote herself to religion as a nun of one of the orders occupied in the education of children. Learning, however, to become exceedingly attached to a poor little girl whom she adopted from charity, she has been led to compare the feelings of real maternity with those of the professed *religieuses* who do not even aspire to cultivate any sentiments which might remind them too closely of earthly ties. The result of her experience is that she resolves to seek in the natural duties of a wife and mother for a vocation she feels to be higher than that of a nun. When she reciprocates the attachment of Emile Lemoutier, however, a new difficulty arises: Emile, the disciple of his philosophic father, is a religious man in the truest sense of the term, but by no means a Catholic; and, even when she is disposed to pass over this objection, and to induce her father to do so also, the spectre of the confessional arises between the lovers, and Emile refuses to consent to the "*divorce avant le mariage*." The director of Mlle. de la Quintinie, Moreali, comes in as the representative of Romanism in its most devout and enlightened sense, and Emile's father as that of a purer faith; and the contest between the two to induce Mademoiselle either to reject the marriage or to consent to it, and to the abandonment of confession, is truly a very fine study. Many passages of such eloquence as only George Sand can command among the writers of France might be quoted for the admiration of the reader; we can, however, make room only for a few, which contain the gist of the book. Lucie says,



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speaking of her past intention to become a nun:—

There was to me something so sweet in feeling that I lived in an atmosphere of vast religious fraternity with the increasing crowd of the faithful. The association of ideas, of sentiments, and of actions—this is truly the social and divine ideal. I was then proud of belonging to the Roman Church—to the Catholic Church, the name of which signifies universal doctrine. I saw the dream of my faith realized—the mind of God so diffused throughout the masses, alms scattered about by millions, monasteries raised on every peak in France. I saw, in fact, that great thing at work—union in the strength of love. Dream of childhood! which I had much wept after! There was only one thing wanting in this great religious transport of the age—sincerity. That is not there; consequently, neither faith nor real charity. Alms are sold there, since prayer is purchased. I feared being deceived. I obtained permission from my relations to travel with some missionary ladies on one of their journeys. I went several journeys with them. I visited a great part of the middle and the south of France. Well;—I saw wretched intrigues for the purpose of ruining secular establishments, of putting an end to all co-operation, and of monopolizing the privileges of commerce. I saw a spirit of display and dominion urged on and supported by a spirit of intrigue, I will not say against such or such a government, but against all kinds of institutions having liberty for a basis.

Moreali answers her:—

What are all the learned men, all the theologians in the world in the presence of a dogma which is thus formed to love and to suffer? And see, what is the basis of this dogma—an idea? No—a sentiment. Well, I tell you ideas have had their time; they have only served to mislead mankind. The reign of sentiment must return. Faith must purify all; but on the condition of destroying that beautiful, luminous edifice called civilization. We must make new Christians, primitive Christians, in the bosom of this corrupted society; and, in order to do that, we must cast down without pity their pride, their luxury, their palace of industry, their railroads, their fleets, their armies. We must again enter into poverty, austerity, and make no use of the world, except as a step by which to mount towards God.

The great purport of the book is resumed in the words of the elder Lemoutier, addressing the priest—repentant at last for the evils he has conscientiously caused to Lucie and to her dead mother in time gone by:—

Nature is holy, monsieur; her laws are the most beautiful manifestation that God has given us of his existence, of his wisdom, and of his goodness. The priest by force disowns them. On that day when the Church condemned her priests to celibacy, she created in humanity a new and strange class of passions—sickly, and impossible to satisfy, impossible to tolerate—which are but the deviations of the most legitimate instincts. Your error I have told you of. You believe in a God, the proscriber of life, the reformer of Nature—that is to say, in war against his own work, and forbidding man to be man. To give greater weight to the inconsistency of your God, you attribute to him a taste for eternal torments. Monsieur l'Abbé, if you wish that we should do a little towards your Church, let us see an assembled council crying down falsehood and blasphemy—a hell of eternal torments; and you will have a right to cry out to us, "Come to us all you who wish to know God." Until then, you make us afraid. As for your un pitying God, we swear upon our eternal souls and by our sublime God that we consign him to the darkness of the first ages of humanity. Pure Christianity and many salutary prescriptions due to Catholicism open to you the field of true holiness. When you know how to disengage from a mass of errors many decisions eternally true, you will do good without effort—you will know chastity without struggles, humility without inward protestation, charity without dogmatic restriction, friendship without evasion, faith without failing, hope without limits. This is the state of perfection to which all men of courage may aspire; and, in order to attain this sphere of the true, there is no need of mortifications of hair-cloths, of fasts, and of wrestlings with Satan. No; the road is called *inquiry without obstacles and religion without mysteries*.

We cannot regard a book of this kind save as a very remarkable product of the age—

perhaps all the more surprising when we remember from whose lips such a protest has come to us. However we may be inclined to question various points of the author's argument, it will hardly happen that the reader will put down the work without echoing the sentiment which pervades it, and which finds its expression in the words of the heroine:—"It is not, as the Church has taught us, by *dying* to all natural affections and earthly interests that we shall approach to God. It is by *living* to everything good, and beautiful, and noble in His creation." As Tennyson said long ago—

'Tis Life, not Death for which we pant,  
More life and fuller—that we want.

F. P. C.

## "SIGNALS OF DISTRESS" AND "MORE ABOUT RAGGED LIFE IN EGYPT."

*Signals of Distress—in Refuges and Houses of Charity; in Industrial Schools and Reformatories; at Invalids' Dinner-tables and in the Homes of the Little Sisters of the Poor; in Bethnal Green and at St. George's, Hanover Square; in the Wake of District Visitors; among the Fallen, the Vicious, the Criminal; where Missionaries travel; where Good Samaritans have clothed the Naked; among the Shoe-blacks and the Rag Brigades, &c.* By Blanchard Jerrold, Author of "The Life of Douglas Jerrold," &c., &c. (Sampson Low, Son, & Co.)

*More about Ragged Life in Egypt.* By M. L. Whately, Author of "Ragged Life in Egypt." (Seeley, Jackson, and Halliday.)

"If you love the poor, you will go to Paradise, for your heart is white," said a poor Cairene woman to Miss Whately; and, as one reads her pages, modestly recording her own work, hopefully proclaiming the efforts of the Christian missionary among the Copts and Mohammedans, one feels that the Egyptian woman was not far from the truth. But it is Mr. Jerrold's book that brings most home to one the conviction that, however worthily you may be giving your life to literature, science, or your own special profession, you are not doing your full duty to your country at this time of need, or to yourself, unless part of your time and personal care is given to the direct help of the poor. The answer, "Am I my brother's keeper?" will not do; the burden is upon us all, and each should bear his share. The help Mr. Jerrold's book gives is this: he has reprinted his letters in the *Morning Post* on the London poor, describing—first, some of "the institutions, the object of which is to rescue the poor from temptations to crime, the nightly refuges, the cheap or gratuitous homes, and the industrial schools;" secondly, the penal or quasi-penal institutions, the reformatories for convicted boys, refuges for fallen women, &c.; and, lastly, some miscellaneous charities, as the Invalids' Dinner-Tables, the Old People's Home, kept by the Little Sisters of the Poor, and the poor districts of Bethnal Green, &c., helped by the District Visiting Society. The book is really a valuable contribution towards the knowledge of what our London evils are, what agencies are at work to counteract them, and what improvements and aids these agencies need. To those who sit at ease, it will be especially valuable, as showing where their renewed help in money and time may best be given; while the practical philanthropist will get from it many hints as to the checking of hobbies—religious, teetotal, and other—that hinder his usefulness; and the statesman will learn what enormous powers for evil and good he and his fellow-legislators wield to help or hinder the voluntary efforts for good—as in the case of Boys' Homes—that exist, and to cure the great evil of bad houses and homes into which, on every street clearance, the poor are more and more thickly huddled, and where vice and crime are forced as in a hothouse. Is it not rather hard that at this day Mr. Jerrold should have to ask:—

How many of our London or provincial Arabs reach reformatories or homes, or have reached

them since the Amended Industrial Schools Act was passed in 1861? Their way to them, unless they are patronized by some good Samaritan, or are admitted when the voluntary contributions support free cases, as at the Bloomsbury refuges and elsewhere—their way to reformation is through the police court. . . . About 17,000 individuals are in these private asylums for the destitute and fallen; but Government has done little of the work, and has now resolved to make that little less. Magistrates, as a rule, are indisposed to convict a child under the Industrial Schools Act, although some county magistrates have shown a good example. In one instance an admirable lesson was read to the Home Office. The grant was withdrawn from a certain school; whereupon a county magistrate, whose school it was, turned his sixty *protégés* adrift. Found in the streets, they were brought before him; he, in his magisterial capacity, sentenced them under the Industrial Schools Act; whereupon they were conducted back to school, and the Home Office was compelled to pay £13 a head for them.

Surely, if we cannot have, as we hinted in a late number, such a measure of reform as would make our legislators as solicitous about working men's interests as they are about middle-class interests now since the Reform Bill, we might at least hear of a few members of Parliament, having the confidence of their respective parties, visiting and working among the poor, and reporting to Whig, Radical, and Tory alike what measures of relief should be taken, under the assurance that their recommendations should in the main become law. Cannot duty do the work before them unless backed by the consciousness that an election is to be lost or gained by the fulfilment of their requirements? Take the Law of Settlement. Does not every one know that these words are true?—

To see how this law operates in massing the poor in poor districts and parishes, the inquirer must visit country places, where the labourers live many miles from their work, because the employers or landlords will not have labourers' cottages built lest their men should obtain a settlement within their parish. . . . In London, too, we find certain centres of poverty, and we drive more poor to them. We depopulate the City to cram Poplar and Bethnal Green! Our parochial authorities vie with each other in keeping their parishes clear of paupers, or of work-people who may become paupers. . . . The truth is, that the Law of Settlement keeps (the worst-paid) labour in a condition of slavery. The unemployed man cannot freely go and come. We have free trade in corn; but we have yet to obtain free trade in British labour.

Again, as to emigration:—

We find that sixty girls have resided an average of ten years in the Waterford workhouse at an annual cost of £500. Here they will probably remain all their lives, since there is little or no hope of finding employment for them where they are. After having spent £5000 on them, it appears to have struck the guardians that it would not be an irrational proceeding to send them to a place where their own labour will provide them with the necessities of life. For £500, or a year's keep, the parish can send them to America, where they will find a welcome. . . . There is not a sadder sight in London than the ward of the London Union, where able-bodied men are housed. Here is labour wasting that many a colony is craving; here is a man kept in forced idleness, out of the industry of people who are not many steps removed from the union gates.

But all the shortcomings are not on the part of the Government only; we are all at fault. We will not go to Mr. Trevitt's parish in Bethnal Green, whose *Quiet Poor* were so touchingly described in "Household Words" in years gone by, but to Spitalfields, where we remember the pale silk-weaver deacon of a chapel, with one room for himself, and wife, and seven children—one bed for father and mother, a little one on each side of them, and three at the bottom, the foot being turned into a second bedhead, while the eldest girl and boy had one small mattress on the floor—and we ask whether the following statement is overdrawn, or the reflection on it unneeded?—

The Registrar-General records deaths from starvation in our midst. How many have died of



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positive want lately the coroner can tell. The shadows of men, women, and children I passed on my way to this [Albert Street Ragged] school looked like dried mummies endowed with motion—human atoms, so bent and wasted, and beaten by hard fate, that I passed them wondering how much more the human form could endure, and still hold the soul within it. To think of the tens of thousands of London folk who live idle and luxurious at the West End; to think of snug Clapham and haughty Eaton Square; nay, to think of little Daffles, of the Post-Office, going home to his tea and muffins, or of Mrs. Grundy's very humblest relation, and then to look upon these pictures of skeleton want, framed in London fog, and beaten upon by a north-east wind! Men and women are thoughtless in the happy west, dancing, eating, and dreaming behind the splendours of Mr. Cubitt's stucco town, or many a dainty foot would press Brick Lane, and many of the sighs with which the atmosphere of Spitalfields is weighted would give way to laughter.

But we turn from such reproaches to dwell for a short time on the efforts for prevention of crime, and for aid to the sick and suffering, that the book records. We single out one specimen of each—the Boys' Home at Wandsworth, and the Home of the Little Sisters of the Poor in Sutherland Gardens, Maida Hill. This Boys' Home, says Mr. Jerrold, is the largest and most vigorously-managed London private reformatory he has visited. In a comfortable house, with a lawn like some sleek alderman's suburban retreat, are 185 boys, who, but for this plan, would starve or steal, but who now really work, as the master says. They do their own housework, wash their own linen, make their own clothes, and cook their own victuals. They raise most of their own vegetables, build their own workshops and dormitories, tear rags for the papermaker, and a party of them—builders—are building some little villas for the master, hard by.

The institution never figures in the advertising columns of the newspapers; it has no committee, no president, no honorary secretary; it cannot boast even a printed report; it has never aired a long list of fashionable subscribers. And wherefore? . . . It is a monument of private charity, so nobly and perseveringly exercised that it is difficult to celebrate it. Rich words, "to hang trophies on," proclaim that which has been done unostentatiously from year to year, with earnest heart and open purse, by a single lady. . . . I leave it to him who hath the gift to record that holy, unregarded work which Miss Portal has been doing these many years.

The family life in this and other Boys' Homes, and their trusting the boys' honour, should be contrasted with the Government flogging and drill at the Feltham School, where the boys are never trusted, and grace before meals is done like position drill, "by numbers"—one, two, three, lift the hands in prayer, one, two, three, lower the hands—and the boys sit down to their iron mugs in silence—"not a word must be spoken during meal time."

We pass over, unwillingly, the admirable Boys' Home in Euston Road, with which Mr. Hughes and others are engaged, and turn to those Little Sisters of the Poor, whom the shilling *Heroines of Charity* first made known to us in 1854. There any reader may learn how, in the poor Breton fishing village of St. Servan, Abbé le Pailleur trained two poor young needlewomen of eighteen and sixteen to devote themselves to the charge of a poor old blind woman near them, and then, with the servant Jeanne Jugan's six hundred francs, established the old woman in Jeanne's garret. Fifteen hundred women have since followed the example; and now nearly ten thousand aged poor are fed and nursed by the Little Sisters. Of their two establishments in London, Mr. Jerrold visited the one in Sutherland Gardens, consisting of three fine modern houses thrown into one. There they take in the poorest of the poor, who are old and suffering, and nurse them for the rest of their lives. Of themselves they say, "We are very poor, and depend on our begging sisters. The rent of the house is paid for us; we

couldn't afford it. The house is not large enough for our numbers; we haven't room for even one more sufferer." And the begging sisters beg for—what?—rich people's refuse; scraps of bread and food that would otherwise go on to the ash-heap. The best of it they give to their poor, the worst they eat themselves; and, says Mr. Jerrold—

The back kitchen is the sisters' dining-room. A long deal table was laid for their afternoon meal. I have never seen a more touching sight. Two piles of broken odds and ends of stale crusts, and two heaps of cheese-parings—all leavings from good tables—with some brown jugs of water, and mugs set to each plate, were all these self-devoted women had laid for themselves. That which gave a refining touch to the whole was the arrangement of coarse *serviettes*, tied with black strings, against each plate. The Little Sister smiled, as I lingered over this feast of scraps that any London beggar would scorn. The fare the Mendicity Society give to passing tramps is a meal for a club *gourmet* when compared with this severely frugal spread. Yet, eaten with a hearty will, and by contented lips, it becomes dainty food, whereon the Little Sisters flourish. It is sweetened day by day with the knowledge that comfort has been given to ninety of God's creatures. I could not forbear from contrasting charity as it is here administered, unregarded by the world, with London Tavern feasts, where hearts are opened by guinea dinners, to the strains of hired singers, and where applause is modulated to harmonize with the amount given—a slight rattling of glasses accompanying the gift of two guineas, and "great applause" proclaiming the fifty guinea donation. Unseen and unknown, the Little Sister of the Poor, her hard day's work done, munches her stale crust and rind of cheese, content to carry out her vow of hospitality, and to sleep upon straw!

Thank you, Mr. Jerrold, very heartily for your book.

Now of Miss Whately's book, what shall we say? To all interested in the spread of Christianity in the East it will be cheering, as showing how willing the people are to receive the missionaries and hear the Bible read at the coffee-houses, where all assemble, and in their homes. But the best part of the book is the record of the bright, good lady's own work with her children in the school; and for more of it we could well have spared some of the doctrinal talk in the latter part of the volume. However, we have read every word of it with great pleasure, and do not know how better to send our readers to it than by extracting the sketch of the little troubles that a Cairene teacher has to get over in her first day or two's school work. This is the specimen of what goes on:—

"Teacher! Zanuba is beating me." "Teacher! Sittaty is pinching my arm." "Oh, teacher, Fatmeh pushed me down; pray beat her." "I cannot get an alphabet; they have taken mine away." "Hear my spelling, teacher; I can say it very nicely." "No, don't hear her, teacher; hear me first." "Look at Adeela, teacher; she is striking my sister: I will not have my sister struck." "She tore the book, and ought to be beaten." "Oh, teacher, do something to my finger; it is so bad!" Then, when, one after another, all had been attended to, a fit of joy succeeded the fit of quarrelling, and two or three would fling down the cards and exclaim, "I am so glad you are come again! I love you much!" "Then show me your love by being good and quiet," was the reply. "I must have order." "Yes, yes; order, order!" echoes a lively officious little lass of ten or eleven, snatching up a ruler and laying about her vigorously, crying, "Order, order, you children! stand in order!" When the stick is taken from her, and the little ones she has tapped so violently as to make them cry are pacified, another trouble begins—the idle ones fancy they are hungry, and out of some pocket in their ragged garments come a green onion, a piece of sticky date-paste, a pickled turnip, or a bit of sugar-cane, which have to be confiscated till "recess," as are apples and lollipops in our English schools; and with some difficulty the disorderly crew are induced to wait till the muezzin has announced that it is the hour of noon from the neighbouring mosque.

## CORPUS INSCRIPTIONUM LATINARUM.

*Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum.* Consilio et auctoritate Academiae Litterarum Regiae Borussiae editum. Vol. I. Inscriptiones Latinae antiquissimae ad C. Caesaris mortem. Edidit Th. Mommsen. Accedunt Elogia clarorum Virorum edita ab eodem, Fasti Anni Juliani editi ab eodem, Fasti Consulares ad A. U. C. 766 editi a Guil. Henzeno. Fol. Berolini apud G. Reimerum.

*Ejusdem Voluminis Primi Tabulae: Prisca Latinitatis Monumenta Epigraphica ad Archetyporum fidem Exemplis Lithographis representata.* Edidit F. Ritschellius. 96 tabb. Fol. Berolini.

*Prisca Latinitatis Epigraphicae supplementa duo.* (Bonn.)

CLASSICAL scholars could hardly have suggested any great work which was more needed than a really good collection of Latin inscriptions, nor could they have named any scholars so capable of executing it well as those who are now engaged on it. The inscriptions found in Rome, Latium, Etruria, and Picenum are to be edited by William Henzen and Jo. Bapt. Rossi, who have both previously proved their acuteness, learning, and industry in this field—the former by a supplementary volume to Orelli's selection, the latter by a collection of Christian inscriptions; and both of whom, by their residence in Rome, have peculiar facilities for the execution of their task. The remaining inscriptions are to be edited by Theodore Mommsen, of all men living probably the best qualified for the purpose. His Neapolitan inscriptions, Roman history, book on Roman coinage, and multitudes of other works, are proofs, if proofs be needed. As a kind of introduction to the general collection, it was determined that Mommsen and Ritschl should execute a plan which they had agreed upon as a private undertaking now eleven or twelve years ago; that is, edit all the oldest inscriptions, without respect to the place of their discovery or present abode—Mommsen giving them with historical and explanatory matter, Ritschl superintending accurate fac-similes of all, so far as the originals are now extant, and adding a volume of grammatical and palaeographical comments. The last is not yet published, though Ritschl promises it shortly,—not as a part of the Academy's "Corpus," but as a private publication of his own. The two former are the handsome volumes named at the head of this article.

Ritschl's volume speaks for itself. We have here fac-similes of all the existing Latin inscriptions before the death of Julius Caesar, whether on bronze or stone or lead, lithographed by the same artist (Penning), from copies taken on pressed paper, plaster of Paris, &c., from the originals, and carefully examined again and again by Ritschl, who tells us he has brought the lithographer completely to the happy art of not seeing more than there really is. Ritschl is so confident of the accuracy of his fac-similes that he declares the originals may perish for all he cares—their evidence is now perpetuated for ever. On the inestimable value of such a book we need not dilate.

Mommsen's volume, however, will command a larger circle of readers; and we shall give a detailed description of its contents. We do not see how the work could have been done more completely, more thoroughly, or in a way better adapted to the wants and convenience of scholars. With every inscription, we are told the places where it was found and where it now exists, and the collections in which it has been printed; and, if there is any discrepancy on interesting details in the accounts of previous editors, we have their different statements given. The inscription itself is printed in ordinary capital letters, excepting where the constant form of a letter now not used—as those for P and L—or a monogram, is found in the inscription: these are represented by special types. Sometimes a corrected text is given in small letters also. The laws, &c., on bronze, are, however, given only in small letters, with ordinary punctuation, in order to facilitate



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perusal. When the original exists, the inscription is usually taken from Ritschl's fac-simile, or a transcript made directly from the stone or bronze by Mommsen himself, or some other modern expert, as Henzen, Brunn, Kellermann, Detlefsen, &c. (a thing which Orelli entirely neglected); in other cases, and where the original has perished, a careful collation of the readings of various observers and editors is added. In both cases we frequently have double or triple or more evidence for the accuracy of the transcript. Appended to this are discussions of the date, and explanations of difficulties in the inscription itself or the historical matter contained in it, almost always sufficient, and sometimes amounting to a full commentary, with copious citation of illustrative passages, wherever some point had not been already adequately elucidated by previous scholars. Mutilated inscriptions have their principal deficiencies supplied conjecturally; abbreviated expressions are, where necessary, filled up;—the added words being, in the former case, printed in italics, in the latter put in brackets. Indices to the whole volume, compiled by Emil. Hübner, occupy seventy-six pages, and are as full and as useful as can be conceived; they are of words, of grammatical points, and of things, with appropriate subdivisions. For instance, under the head of "*Declinatio*" we have all the words which exhibit any deviation from the ordinary type, arranged under their respective cases and declensions, with references to the inscription in which they are found. Similarly we have complete lists of monograms, abbreviations, &c.; of all the mentions of gods and heroes; of all buildings named, &c.; and, in fact, every index that either scholar, critic, or historian can desire. It is hardly necessary to add that the book throughout is in Latin, excepting some quotations from Italian discoverers or editors.

The inscriptions are divided into two parts—the former being those probably older than the second Punic war, the latter those subsequent, the date of the particular inscription being, of course, given when ascertainable. The inscriptions older than the Hannibalic war, as Mommsen delights to call it, are very few and meagre, more so than appears at first sight, chiefly consisting of two or three words only. Almost the only one of a fair length is that on L. Scipio, the son of Barbatus. All the other inscriptions from the tombs of the Scipios, except two brief ones, are later, but given here for convenience. The dance-chant of the Arval brethren is, of course, also given; but it is really known to us only from an inscription not earlier than A.D. 218. And the cherished inscription in honour of C. Duillius Mommsen and Ritschl cruelly, but confidently, assert to be of the time of Claudius, and not even copied from a more ancient one. The legends (sixty in all) on coins of the period are given; but they are never more than one word from each side of the coin.

The second part is, of course, far fuller—containing first, with elaborate commentaries, the famous fragments of Roman laws, &c., inscribed on bronze (which hitherto have been read by most of us chiefly in Spangenberg's "*Monumenta Legalia*," whom Mommsen (p. 50) accuses of impudent negligence, and declares to be quite unworthy of being read)—viz., the letter of the consuls to the Teuraniens concerning the Bacchanalia (A.U.C. 568); then the Latin portion of the inscriptions found at Bantia, containing the penalties for violation of some law (621—636 A.U.C.) inscribed in Oscan and Latin, and of which we have merely this and an Oscan fragment left; next, the mutilated remains of the *lex repetundarum*, occasioned by the reconstitution of the criminal judicatures by C. Gracchus, and commonly called *lex Servilia*, but which Mommsen considers to have been carried by M. Acilius Glabrio in 631, or 632 A.U.C., and repealed by the real *lex Servilia* (now lost) in 643, or earlier. We observe that Rudorff also, in his "*History of Roman Law*," refers it to the time of the Gracchi, but identifies it with neither Acilius's nor Servilius's act. Next comes the arbitration

of Q. and M. Minucius Rufus on the disputed boundary between the Genoese and their neighbours in 637; and then the fragments of the *lex agraria*, written on the back of the plate containing the *lex repetundarum*—both receiving very elaborate treatment. The *lex agraria* has commonly been supposed to be that mentioned by Cicero (Brut. 36):—"Sp. Thorius satis valuit in populari genere dicendi, is qui agrum publicum vitiosa et inutili lege vectigali levavit." But Appian speaks of a Sp. Borius (supposed to be an error for Sp. Thorius) as carrying a law which imposed, not removed, the land-tax, and of a subsequent anonymous law as removing it. Mommsen considers the law, of which fragments remain, to be this anonymous one; fixes its date at 643 A.U.C.; and conjectures that its author may have been C. Bæbius, who is known as a tribune of the time who favoured the aristocratic interest. He further (and herein is followed by Rudorff) reconciles Cicero with Appian by translating the former passage, "Freed the public land from the bad and useless law (of Tib. Gracchus) by imposing a tax"—a translation which, notwithstanding such high authority, we believe to be grammatically impossible. Next is the letter of the prætor to the people of Tibur, informing them of the senate's accepting their explanation in reply to certain charges brought against them, which Mommsen dates as of the middle of the seventh century. The fragment of Sulla's law (673 A.U.C.) for the election of twenty quæstors follows. Unfortunately, it only contains a few clauses regulating the offices of clerks apparitors and criers attached to the quæstors, and allowing the elected persons to discharge the duties by deputy—thus enabling the offices to become saleable. Then follows a decree of the senate, in Latin and Greek, in favour of three Asiatic Greeks, in return for their services as captains of vessels at the beginning of the Italic war, conferring on them immunity from tribute and public burthens, freeing them from the legal consequences of the efflux of time since their absence from their country, &c. This decree is dated in the body of it 22nd May, 676. Next, about one-sixth of a law (called *lex Antonia*) proposed by the tribunes, and passed in the tribe-assembly, probably A.U.C. 683, guaranteeing autonomy and alliance and friendship to the people of Termessus Major, in Pisidia. Then a small portion of a law (in 705 A.U.C.), proposed by Rubrius at the command of C. Julius Caesar, prescribing the jurisdiction of the municipal magistrates in Gallia Cisalpina, and containing some very interesting specimens of the legal formulæ (or prætorian statements of the pleadings) in cases of anticipated damage from the fall of houses, &c. (*damni infecti*). Finally comes the longest and most complete fragment of a law of this date that we possess, shown by Savigny to have been passed by Julius Caesar in the year 709 A.U.C. for regulating, first, the repair of streets by the householders, and the duties of ædiles and others in enforcing it, and in regulating the heavy traffic, &c.; secondly, the elections, and office-qualifications of municipal bailiffs, governors, and councils, and the census to be periodically held by them. Mommsen considers that we have of this law all excepting some few chapters at the commencement.

After these fragments of laws and official documents, which rival in methodical verbosity an English statute or deed of conveyance, come the legends on post-Hannibalic coins, which are much more numerous and instructive than those in the first series; then the inscriptions of ascertained age; we may note particularly those recording, in Saturnian verse (No. 541), Mummius's dedication of a temple and statue to Hercules the Conqueror, and, in hexameter verse (No. 542), of portions of the tithe of the Corinthian spoil to the same; P. Popillius Laenas's description (No. 551) of his new road from Rhegium to Capua, with the distances in miles, and his other exploits; some inscriptions on boundary stones erected by the Gracchan commissioners in 624 A.U.C. (No.

552, &c.); others referring to public works carried out by Campanian municipal magistrates—as, for instance (No. 577), one (restored in the time of the emperors, according to Mommsen, but professing to be of the year 649 A.U.C.) containing the details of a wall and gates to be erected at Puteoli, the contractors to be paid one moiety on furnishing security, the other on the completion and approval of the work. In order to illustrate this, Mommsen inserts an elevation, side view and horizontal section, drawn to scale by C. Boetticher. Again, we have (No. 603) the deed of dedication of the temple at Furfo, permitting the use of iron implements in repairing it, giving power to sell offerings, secularizing them when sold, and applying the proceeds to the temple use. No kind of inscription is neglected. The leaden almond-shaped bullets, (*glandes*) thrown from slings both by Greeks and Romans, and found near the sites of besieged towns—Henna, Asculum, Munda, Perusia, &c.—furnish, *inter alia*, some quaint and rather coarse soldiers' jokes, if the interpretation given be correct; and pieces of bone or ivory (*tesserae*) of mysterious import, having inscribed the name of a man (generally a slave, and then his master's name also), with the day and the consuls of the year, make the next contribution to our store of Roman forms. Then come tiles now in the museum at Parma; also sepulchral jars from the vineyard of S. Cæsario on the Appian road, with the name of the dead and day on which the bones were gathered and deposited. Then follow (the order is geographical) some well-known epitaphs of a fair length and of much simple beauty, written in iambic verse—as that on Claudia (No. 1007), which enumerates wool-spinning among her many virtues; twenty lines on the daughter of Q. Raneus (No. 1008), and twenty-two on the accomplished Eucharis, who first appeared before the people on a Greek stage (No. 1009), and died at fourteen years of age; others (as No. 1175) commemorating the offer of a tithe to Hercules in fulfilment of a vow on a prayer being granted, written in Saturnian verse, of which the stone-cutter was sadly ignorant; others (as No. 1166) recording the gratitude of the senate of Aletrium to L. Betilienus Varus, who had executed numerous city-improvements, aqueduct, dial, meat-market, hall, bath, &c.; or (as 1291) preserving the memory of a right-of-way to a temple of Feronia; or (as 1254) offering a reward for the recovery of a lost article; or mentioning (as 1418) the presentation by Horatius Balbus of a piece of land at Sarsina for the purpose of a cemetery for his fellow-townsmen, excepting such as had served as gladiators, or strangled themselves, or followed a foul trade—each to have ten feet in breadth and ten in length, with the right of erecting a monument. After these, and many others of very different kinds, come the small slips of bronze found at Patavia (commonly called *sortes Prænestinae*) each bearing one sententious hexameter.

But there is half the volume yet untouched, containing inscriptions of a rather later period, but referring mainly to persons and events before the death of Caesar. (These are not in Ritschl's volume.) First come *elogia*—i. e., short inscriptions painted on the walls of houses in connexion with the painted pedigrees, and containing a brief *select* (*elogia*, from *eligere*, according to Mommsen) enumeration of the honours and offices which the subject held; and also some inscriptions set up in his own forum at Rome by Augustus, and afterwards repeated in the country towns, commemorative of the famous deeds of several old heroes, beginning with Æneas and Romulus, and including Appius Claudius, Fabius Maximus, C. Marius, and others. Secondly, a considerable number of fragments of almanacs, recording the holidays, religious ceremonies, &c., and adding some historical information, all of the Julian year, and evidently set up in Rome and other towns—e. g., Allifæ, Venusia, Præneste, Amiternum—to familiarize the people with the new calendar, which, however, the stone-cutter could not always grasp. None are



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later than Claudius: most date before A.D. 20. To these Mommsen has added, for the sake of completion, two other almanacs, which are preserved in manuscript—one by Philocalus, in A.D. 354, another by Polemius Silvius, A.D. 448-9. Besides critical notes and some other comments, Mommsen has given a complete calendar, embodying all the information contained in the various fragments, in their own words, with full additional quotations, references, and explanations—forming, in fact, an elaborate work on the Roman calendar.

The last section of the volume is devoted to the well-known *Fasti Capitolini*—i.e., lists of consuls, heroes, &c., and triumphs originally inscribed on the marble walls of a building near the temple of Castor and Pollux in the Roman forum, probably the Regia, or official house of the Pontifex Maximus. They were first cut after the year A.U.C. 718, and before 724; but subsequently continued to the year 766, or one year before the death of Augustus. The present edition of them is due to Henzen, who, some years ago, copied the inscriptions, and compared his copy with Piranesi's edition, and in the year 1860, for the purposes of this volume, went over afresh, with the aid of Detlefsen, all the points wherein he had read differently from former observers, supplied, as far as from conjecture was possible, the mutilated parts, and added brief notes. Some other fragments of a similar nature are added; and Mommsen supplements all by an elaborate table (something similar to those appended by Arnold to his "History of Rome"), giving in parallel columns the consuls (or military tribunes) of each year, from Brutus and Collatinus to A.U.C. 766, according to all the various authorities—viz., the *Fasti* preserved on stone, the *Chronographus* of the date 354 A.D., the *Fasti Hispani*, the *Chronicon Paschale*, *Diodorus*, *Livy*, *Cassiodorus*, and *Dio*—manuscripts having been consulted, and even critical editions (e.g., of *Cassiodorus*) prepared to secure correct results for the purpose of this volume.

It is quite superfluous to add a word of praise for such thorough treatment. There can be no doubt of the hearty gratitude of all scholars for a most useful and noble work; and it is satisfactory to learn that the "Corpus" itself has been progressing all the while this introduction was in preparation. In that the inscriptions (including those in this volume) will be arranged according to a geographical order, and be given without explanatory comment. But Mommsen has rightly judged that, in this far smaller collection, space could be found for his commentaries, which were quite sure to be highly valued. We hope our notice will induce many to procure this admirably-edited mass of interesting and authentic materials for Latin grammar and Roman history.

## NOTICES.

*The Life and Character of John Howe, M.A., with an Analysis of his Writings.* By Henry Rogers. A New Edition. (Religious Tract Society.)—Most people, we imagine, believe the eminent Nonconformist, John Howe, to have been a greater man than it would appear from this volume that he was. The biographer, it is true, has no lack of veneration for his subject. He applauds him as one of the most perfect of men. He was, no doubt, a very good man, a devout and a liberal-minded puritan. He was much looked up to for his moderation and prudence, and frequently acted as a mediator between extreme parties. He had also considerable mental gifts. But his writings, for which he is chiefly famous, are terribly long-winded. He was a man who could keep a congregation engaged for seven hours at a stretch. His works have been much valued, however, by pious persons for their fervour and spirituality; and, to many readers, this biography, which, though diffuse, is clear and candid, will be welcome.

*The Gospel History: a Compendium of Critical Investigations in Support of the Historical Character of the Four Gospels.* By Dr. J. H. A. Ebrard. Translated by James Martin, Revised and Edited by Alexander B. Bruce. (Edinburgh:

T. and T. Clark.)—THIS is essentially a work for students, and for students who are not easily frightened by a German character in a book. Dr. Ebrard is an orthodox Biblical critic, but he uses heavy German terminology, which is literally rendered in the translation. The work is lightly described as "a compendium of critical investigations." It contains a large amount of closely-packed matter, comprising all the difficulties that have been mooted by Strauss and others, and answers to them, partly selected and partly original, characterized by learning and ingenuity. Such a volume is scarcely one to read through; but, as a repertory of facts and of speculations relating to the four Gospels, it will be consulted with interest and advantage.

*The First Week of Time; or, Scripture in Harmony with Science.* By Charles Williams, author of "Art in Nature," "The Seven Ages of England," &c. (Jackson, Walford, and Hodder. Pp. 304.)—MR. WILLIAMS thinks that, as Lady Trevelyan gave to the world the last volume of her brother's "History of England" "precisely as it was left, no connecting link having been added, nor reference verified," so "surely the only book out of the millions extant offering any rational evidence that it came from the hand of God, should be reverently accepted, just as He gave it, to be held forever sacred from the unhallowed touch of erring man." The author accordingly discards the speculations of such men as Lyell and Darwin, and scouts the idea of the Mosaic day meaning "a millennium of centuries." He takes the words of Genesis in their literal sense, but thinks that God did not reveal the date of the creation of Moses. "The 4004 A.M. in the margin of our Bibles," he says, "was inserted there, not by Him, but by our own chronologists, and is, therefore, open to full and free discussion, and may be altered at a future time, though it cannot be now on satisfactory grounds." Mr. Williams divides his book into ten chapters, the first two of which may be regarded as introductory. The rest are arranged under the following heads:—"The First Day of Time," "The Firmament," "The Waters," "The Dry Land," "The Vegetable Tribes," "The Rulers of the Day and the Night," "Races of Animals," "Man, Physical and Moral." Our author's reading has been extensive; and he possesses the faculty of conveying his knowledge to the reader in a pleasant, intelligible way. Each chapter separately, without taking into account the argument for which the book was written, contains a popular digest of what is known on the subject. The chapter on "The Firmament," for instance, contains an abstract of what has been ascertained on the matter from Moses and Hesiod down to Mr. Glaisher; that on "The Waters" from Moses down to Captain Maury; and so on through the whole book. In spite, however, of all the scientific data which he has collected so carefully and marshalled for us so attractively, Mr. Williams stands up valiantly for the Mosaic cosmogony, pure and simple, and closes his book with this sentence: "The truthfulness of Moses stands on a pyramid 'more durable than brass,' attested as it is by all physical phenomena; the miracles he wrought; his prophecies, fulfilling even to the present time; and the unequivocal testimony of our Lord Jesus Christ and His Apostles."

*Culture and Self-Culture.* A Guide to the Improvement of the Mind and Life. By Samuel Neil, author of "Composition and Elocution," "The Young Debater," &c. (Houlston and Wright. Pp. 90.)—MR. NEIL has taken his text, "Self-culture is the essence of all education," from Cardinal Wiseman's late speech at Southampton, and developed it into a little treatise. The book is divided into five chapters. The first is "On Culture and Self-Culture;" the second, "On Reading;" the third, "On Conversation;" the fourth, "On Thought and the Culture of Thoughtfulness;" and the fifth, "On the Culture of Style—Words and their Laws." The remarks in some of his chapters would be equally applicable if transposed to others. "Reading," "Conversation," "Thought," and the "Culture of Style" possess, in an expository sense, much in common; but, taking our author's arrangement of his subject as it stands, we think he has produced a thoughtful and well-expressed manual. Considering that the book is intended for those "who have not been favoured with opportunities of acquiring knowledge early," the style is, perhaps, a little too scholarly. "Usus loquendi," "collocated vocables," "the *curiosa felicitas* of language is displayed in power of connotation," and suchlike phrases, are surely too erudite for one just stepping on the threshold of the temple of knowledge.

*Handbook to the Cotton Cultivation in the*

*Madras Presidency.* By J. Talboys Wheeler, author of an "Analysis and Summary of the Old Testament," &c., &c. (Virtue Brothers & Co. Pp. 238.)—THE author of this volume disclaims the possession of any special knowledge of cotton, and considers himself in the "light of a literary mechanic, condensing and arranging the subject-matter in such a form as would render the facts most digestible to the general reader." We are assisted to the better understanding of his compilation by sundry woodcuts. The frontispiece shows the relative sizes of the different staples of cotton. Another woodcut shows the very primitive Hindoo method of separating and cleaning the cotton—a practice which still lingers in the southern Mahratta country. A woman places the pods upon a flat stone in front of a low stool on which she sits, and with an iron roller, which she works with her feet, presses out the cotton. Then comes a slight improvement in the shape of the "native churka," which consists of two rollers set in a wooden frame; and, finally, we have illustrations of "the Manchester cottage saw gin," which is a simplification of the well-known American saw gin. Mr. Wheeler treats of the "four years of experimental culture under Dr. Wight in Coimbatore;" of the "four years' experimental culture under Mr. Finnie in Tinnevely;" of the disputes between these gentlemen; of "the views of Sir Henry Pottinger and of the Court of Directors." The appendix, which forms about a fifth part of the book, contains a large amount of tabulated statistics about cotton in Madras and in America. It seems that the American system of agriculture is superior to the Indian from the simple fact that the Americans bestow more attention upon the land. They "practise deep ploughing, are careful in the selection of seeds, sow in ridges, keep the plants wide apart, and destroy all weeds." The Indian ryots, on the other hand, frequently sow their cotton broadcast, often with three or four other crops, allow the plants to grow too closely together, the weeds to flourish, and the wool to hang long after the seed is ripe. This is all very intelligible to those at all familiar with agricultural pursuits in this country. The Americans, in short, pursue what we call here high farming—i.e., they carry on the cultivation of cotton upon the most approved scientific principles—whereas the Indian ryots pursue a system of farming common enough in this country some thirty or forty years ago, but which would very soon land in the *Gazette* the farmer who tried it now. Mr. Wheeler's conclusions are these:—1st. "American cotton can be grown (that is, in Madras), but the profit is questionable;" 2nd. "Indian cotton may be improved, but only to a degree;" 3rd. "American cotton must always command a higher price than Indian;" and 4th. "The demand for Indian cotton must always depend upon the supply of American."

*Science Revealed.* A Poem, descriptive of the Works of Creation and the Truth of Scripture Record. By G. Eveleigh, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c., &c. To be followed by three lectures in illustration, on the Creation, the Deluge, and the Present Evidences thereof. (Churchill and Sons. Pp. 78.)—THE poet says in his preface:—"In the following pages I have sought to reconcile some of the supposed differences between Scripture and science, and prove the words of Scripture to be verbatimly correct and elegantly concise. To establish these views I have recognised only those principles which I am prepared to demonstrate as facts. Many of my ideas are altogether new to the world, inasmuch as they have never before been published, although I have referred to them publicly in lectures, and demonstrated their truth. I hope at some future day to publish other principles, which I consider I have established; but in the following pages I have referred only to what I have considered necessary, either for the proof of Scripture testimony or the exemplification of my views relative to the Creation and the Deluge; and I have chosen poetic composition for their effusion, as that by which scope and force are most readily attained and perpetuated." This, as the reader will see, is rather odd prose, and the poem itself is odder, in thoughts, in words, in metre. It begins thus:—

Science! mystic name of wondrous work!  
So little known, altho' perceiv'd where'er  
The works of God are found! Let me draw near  
To take a sketch of thee, that human minds  
May see and understand thy mysteries;  
And angels guide me while I paint, that I  
May nothing falsify, but justly draw  
Thy nature, power, origin, and, too,  
Thy latent paths, thy secret residence,  
Whilst thine own radiant light reveals thee.  
But oh! I tremble!—would that a nobler hand  
Had chose the task; my quiv'ring eyelids close;  
My brain is fill'd with myriads of ideas.



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We cannot do better for our readers or for the poet than transfer one or two of these wonderful "ideas" of his to our pages. If man, says our poet, is to "deal in mercy" like his Maker, he must project or deal in "companies;" and, having clutched this "idea," he soars with it thus into the empyrean:—

If, then, the State will but assistance lend  
To give security to companies,  
The public companies with moneyed wings  
Will fly like eagles to the scent of prey,  
And ev'ry nook and corner of the world  
Will find its companies of men at work;  
And, for the aid each company receives,  
Each company could well afford to pay  
Out of its surplus revenues the State;  
If out of three, but two a surplus have,  
Two-thirds of each will reimburse the State,  
And hold one-third a bonus to account,  
Which gives the State two-thirds for profit too,  
And two to reimburse the one that's lost.  
Thus, if a government agrees to give,  
Whenever public companies are form'd,  
To each a dividend—say, six per cent.  
Per annum for a certain fixed time,  
And for security inspects accounts—  
Then of the profits which each yieldeth more  
Than the same dividend of six per cent.,  
Two-thirds the Government itself shall claim,  
The other third remaining to afford  
The company an extra dividend.

And so on, for a couple of pages, till he takes up the "drainage of swamps" idea. But our two quotations, we should suppose, will be enough.

*A Dictionary of Chemistry.* By Henry Watts, F.C.S. Part VIII. October. (Longman & Co.)—THIS magnificent contribution to the literature of chemical science has now reached the article "Electricity." We still find the most diligent research, the most careful arrangement, and most scrupulous editing on every page. We can give it no higher praise than that it is in every respect worthy of the seven parts previously published.

*The Popular Science Review.* (Hardwicke.)—DR. LAWSON, the new editor, has certainly provided a very taking bill of fare for the readers of this admirable quarterly. Mr. Crookes illustrates a paper on photographic printing and engraving by a page of the *Times*, reduced to 4 in. x 5½, printed from stone, which page tries one's eyes in more ways than one, and sends us in imagination to Lilliput. Dr. Lancaster treats us to some home-thrusts on our abuse of that much-desired commodity, fresh air. Surely we may take a little trouble about ventilation while the Metropolitan Board of Works is managing our drainage for us on such a gigantic scale; and that the scale is truly gigantic is well shown in a companion article, illustrated, moreover, by a well-drawn map. Other papers there are on microscopic fungi—cluster cups, spermatogones and smuts and bunt; and on the Ionian Islands, the latter by Professor Ansted. Fourteen pages are consecrated to descriptions of new inventions; and the usual summaries—of the average quality—occupy many more.

## MEDICAL PUBLICATIONS.

*On Health: what Preserves, what Destroys, and what Restores it.* Third Edition. By Dr. Horner, M.D., Edinburgh. (Jackson, Walford, and Hodder.)—DR. HORNER is the proprietor of a hydropathic establishment on the Yorkshire coast. His book, which is dedicated in a philanthropic spirit to the ministers of the Gospel of every denomination, is not written with the same generous sentiments towards the members of his own profession. The author's remarks are embodied in ten letters, the first five of which are devoted to Physiology, the sixth to Hygiene and Diet, the seventh to Disease; and, in the last three, Dr. Horner dilates upon the various methods of treatment at present employed, giving the preference to the sea-water cure—not altogether discarding some other special systems, but ruthlessly denouncing the so-called "allopathic" treatment as pernicious and unscientific.

*Remarkable Case of Necrosis and Exfoliation of the Central Portion of the Upper Maxilla and Vomer, producing great Facial Deformity, successfully treated with Mechanical Appliances.* With Remarks on some Prevailing Errors in the Practice of Dental Surgery. Illustrated with woodcuts. By André Fresco, Surgeon-Dentist. (R. Hardwicke.)—IGNORANCE in any branch of surgical science, however trivial that branch may be deemed, must undoubtedly give rise occasionally to deplorable accidents. This brochure serves to direct attention to the superficial knowledge of many who permit themselves to be consulted in maladies originating in disease of the teeth. Publicity on this subject is desirable, in order to im-

press upon the multitude of medical practitioners and others who blindly and indiscriminately exercise their skill in the art of dentistry, that the results of ignorant practice may sometimes be most disastrous to the patient. We wish we could add—as disastrous to the reputation of the surgeon.

*Elements of the Anatomy and Diseases of the Teeth.* By H. J. K. Kempton, F.L.S. (Hardwicke.)—THE treatises hitherto published on this subject have been of too technical a character for the public, and too voluminous for the student engaged in the many branches of a medical education. Mr. Kempton has given a succinct and readable account of so much of human physiology as applies to the perfect growth of the teeth, after which he speaks of the affections attacking them, concisely, though with sufficient fulness. We are pleased to see that the author has referred to American authors, who certainly on the Continent enjoy a wide reputation as surgeon-dentists.

*The Home Nurse and Manual for the Sick-Room.* By Esther C. Hardy. (Churchill.)—ESTHER C. HARDY has been accustomed to home-nursing from childhood, and she now gives us the results of her experience in a volume of 450 pages. Her sphere of observation has been extensive; the sick of all ages and of both sexes have been tended by her; nor can one fail to feel, whilst perusing her work, that nurse Esther must be a very analogue, in sweetness of disposition, of her royal namesake. This manual will be found extremely serviceable to all who may at any time have to do with the chamber of sickness. The authoress's regard for minutiae is truly marvellous, and every page teems with information of a thoroughly practical nature. Parents will obtain many useful hints in the latter chapters, which will serve them as a valuable substitute for the physician in those trifling cases that are constantly occurring in families where one is sometimes puzzled how to proceed, but unwilling to ask counsel.

*The Laryngoscope: Illustrations of its Practical Application, and Description of its Mechanism.* By George Duncan Gibb, M.D., M.A. (Churchill and Sons.)—DR. GIBB may be regarded as the most energetic disciple in this country of Professor Czermak, the expounder, if not the discoverer, of the utility of the laryngoscope. This instrument, the introduction of which into the medical repertory is quite recent—Dr. Czermak having published his first essay on his researches by means of it in 1858—is for the purpose of facilitating the surgeon in his examination of the larynx; and its employment demands the utmost patience and the most careful manipulation. In the present monograph the author directs attention to the various diseases by which the larynx may be affected, after which he relates some of the more important of the cases that have occurred to him in his professional practice. The engravings prove very accurate observation; and the Doctor's interpretation of what he sees appears from the satisfactory results of his treatment to be correct. The writer states in one of the concluding paragraphs that, by aid of the laryngoscope, a surgeon may form an opinion as to the capacity for singing or speaking possessed by certain individuals—an observation to be borne in mind by prospective nightingales and others.

## PUBLICATIONS OF THE WEEK

ALFORD (Henry, D.D.) Quebec Chapel Sermons. Vol. 4. On Divine Love. Third Edition. Fcap. 8vo., pp. xii—307. Rivingtons. 5s.  
ANSTED (Prof. D. T., M.A., F.R.S.) Ionian Islands in the Year 1863. With Illustrations and Maps. 8vo., pp. xii—480. W. H. Allen. 16s.  
ARNOLD DELAHAYE; or, The Huguenot Pastor. With an Illustration. Fcap. 8vo., pp. viii—235. Bell and Daldy. 5s.  
BEALE (Lionel S., M.B., F.R.S.) Urine; Urinary Deposits, and Calculi; and on the Treatment of Urinary Diseases. With numerous Illustrations and Tables for the Clinical Examination of Urine. Second Edition. Post 8vo., pp. xxiv—439. Churchill. 8s. 6d.  
BURNS (Robert). Songs. (Bell and Daldy's Pocket Volumes.) 18mo., pp. 319. Bell and Daldy. 8d., 2s. 6d.; cl., 3s.  
CHARLESWORTH (Maria Louisa). Ministering Children. A Tale dedicated to Childhood. Seventy-seventh Thousand. Fcap. 8vo., pp. iv—426. Seeleys. 5s.  
CHATTERTON (Georgiana, Lady). Heiress and Her Lovers. A Novel. Three Volumes. Post 8vo., pp. 938. Bentley. 31s. 6d.  
CHURCH CONGRESS, Proceedings of the, held in Manchester on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, October 13, 14, and 15, 1863. With Reports of the Meetings and Sermons in Connection with the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. Cr. 4to., sd., pp. 67. Manchester: Evans. 1s.

COLERIDGE (Samuel Taylor). The Friend. A Series of Essays to Aid in the Formation of Fixed Principles in Politics, Morals, and Religion, with Literary Amusements interspersed. With the Author's last Corrections and an Appendix, and with a Synoptical Table of the Contents of the Work. Two Volumes. A New Edition, Revised. Fcap. 8vo., pp. xx—701. Mozon. 14s.

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## MISCELLANEA.

OUR obituary of this week contains the name of Mr. John Bowyer Nichols, for more than sixty years one of the printers of the Votes and Proceedings of the House of Commons. Mr. Nichols was in his 85th year, and died at Hanger Hill, Ealing, on Monday last, the 19th instant. He was the only son of Mr. John Nichols, the author of the "History of Leicestershire," the "Bibliotheca Topographica," and "Literary Anecdotes and Illustrations;" was the godson of William Bowyer, the learned printer, with whom his father was in partnership; and was himself an author and editor. In the latter capacity he was long associated with the *Gentleman's Magazine*. He was also one of the editors of the improved edition of Hutchins's "History of Dorset," the third and fourth volumes of which were superintended by him. In the former he gave us "Collectanea Topographica et Genealogica," in eight volumes octavo, in 1834 to 1843—which have been continued by his son and successor, Mr. John Gough Nichols, in two volumes, under the title of "The Topographer and Genealogist"—besides some minor antiquarian and topographical publications, Mr. Nichols was one of the three registrars of the Literary Fund Society.

We greatly regret to announce the death of W. J. Stewart, Esq., editor of the *Illustrated London News*, which occurred at his residence on Saturday last. Mr. Stewart had been for a considerable time in a weak state of health; but we believe that his death, which resulted from disease of the heart, was quite unexpected until shortly before it took place. In him we have lost a gentleman endeared to his friends by the extreme amiability of his disposition, as well as a young author of real promise. We understand that a posthumous novel is already in the press, and will shortly be produced by the publishers of his former successful work, "Footsteps Behind Him." The venerable Mrs. Somerville, now in her eighty-third year, has nearly completed an important work, embodying the latest discoveries concerning the constitution of matter. It will embrace chapters on the solar spectrum, heat, electricity, the correlation of forces, and the constitution of the minute atoms of animal, vegetable, and mineral substances. The book will form a beautiful illustration of its epigraph, taken from St. Augustine—"Deus magnus in magnis, maximus in minimis."

The *Dublin Evening Mail* asserts, apparently on authority, that the Rev. Canon Stanley has been appointed Archbishop of Dublin.

MESSRS. BLACKWOOD AND SONS are preparing for publication: "The Philosophy of Geology: a Review of the Aim, Scope, and Character of Geological Inquiry," by David Page, F.R.S.E., F.G.S., &c.; "Advanced Text-Book of Physical Geography," by the same; "Modern Civilization, in its Relation to Christianity," a series of essays by William McCombie, editor of the *Aberdeen Free Press*; "Caxtoniana: a series of Essays on Life, Literature, and Manners," by the author of "The Caxton Family," in two volumes, post 8vo.; and "The Scot Abroad, and other Miscellanies," by John Hill Burton, author of "The Book-Hunter." Captain Speke's "Journal of the Discovery of the Source of the Nile," with numerous illustrations, chiefly by Captain Grant, is also on the eve of publication.

MESSRS. WILLIAMS AND NORGATE have just ready: "An Elementary Atlas of Comparative Osteology," by Professor Huxley, with twelve plates, drawn on stone by Mr. B. Waterhouse



# THE READER.

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Hawkins; an edition of "Platonis Phædo," edited, with introduction and notes, by Professor W. D. Geddes; an account of "The Doldenhorn and Weisse Frau, ascended for the first time," by MM. Abraham Roth and E. von Fellenberg, illustrated with a map and coloured plates; a translation of "Diez's Introduction to the Grammar of the Romance Languages," by Mr. C. B. Cayley; and "Celtic Sketches, from the German of Dr. Hermann Ebel," by Dr. W. K. Sullivan. As nearly ready they announce a book, in the right direction, by Dr. Prior, "On the Popular Names of British Plants: being an Explanation of the Origin and Meaning of the Names of our Indigenous and most commonly-cultivated Species;" Mr. Barlow's labour of love and of a life, "Contributions to the Critical Study of the 'Divina Commedia' of Dante;" Dr. Cureton's "Ancient Syriac Documents relative to the Earliest Establishment of Christianity in Edessa and Neighbouring Countries, from the Year after the Ascension to the Fourth Century;" and a new volume of "Essays by Herbert Spencer."

On the 5th of November Mr. Bentley will publish a new work by the author of "East Lynne," in 3 vols. post 8vo., "The Shadow of Ashlydyat," by Mrs. Henry Wood.

MESSRS. BRADBURY AND EVANS will publish Mr. Shirley Brooks's long-expected novel on this side of Christmas. They have also a new volume of "Pictures of Life and Character," by John Leech; and, as a companion to it, "Punch's Cartoons," by John Tenniel. "London People: Sketched from Life by Charles Bennett," will be published by Messrs. Smith, Elder, & Co.

MESSRS. VIETTE, BROTHERS, & Co. have in preparation: "Scenes from the Drama of European History," by Mr. W. H. Davenport Adams; "Current Gold and Silver Coins of all Countries: their Weight, Fineness, and their Intrinsic Value in English Money," by L. C. Martin and Charles Trübner, with metallic fac-similes of the coins; and a new edition of Major Campbell's "Old Forest Ranger."

MESSRS. TRÜBNER & Co. have nearly ready "The Life and Times of Bertrand du Guesclin," by Mr. Jamieson of South Carolina; "Cities of the Past," by Miss Cobbe; "Broken Lights," by the same; an authorized English version of Renan's "Vie de Jésus;" the "Collected Works of M. Van de Weyer;" and "Torn Leaves from the Chronicle of the Ancient Nations of America," by Don Tito Visino—photographed from the author's original drawings by Leopold F. Manley.

THE *Cornhill Magazine* for November contains a timely article on the "Mhow Court-Martial," by Jacob Omnium, the well-known correspondent of the *Times* newspaper. The facts of the case are all given in a lucid and forcible narrative.

"THYRA GASCOIGNE," the novel left by the late Mrs. Edmund Jennings, authoress of "My Good-for-Nothing Brother," is to be published by Messrs. Tinsley Brothers.

OUR old acquaintance, the "Pakeha Maori," has just translated a "History of the War in the north of New Zealand against the Chief Heke, in the Year 1845: Told by an Old Chief of the Ngapuhi Tribe." The book is published at Auckland by Creighton and Scales.

A CLEVER book, on a subject important to colonists, has been published by Messrs. Wilson and Mackinnon of Melbourne, entitled "Pure Saddle-Horses, and How to Breed Them in Australia," by E. M. Curr. As a specimen of colonial printing the book deserves, also, considerable praise.

MR. HENRY KINGSLEY's "Austin Elliot" is being registered in Tauchnitz's cheap series at Leipzig.

MISS SEWELL's "Glimpse of the World" has been translated into French, under the title of "Myra Camron."

DR. H. MEUSCH of Berlin is preparing "A History of England, based upon Lingard's work, and adapted to the use of German Schools," of which the first part—to the death of Edward II.—has been published.

THE "Société des Livres religieux de Toulouse" has just issued "Courts Fragments tirés des Discours de Spurgeon," in five parts.

M. STANISLAS JULIEN, Member of the Institute, and Professor of Chinese, has just translated and edited "Yu-kiao-li, ou les Deux Cousines," a Chinese romance, with philological and historical commentary.

THE following works are in the press: "Les Vernets," par M. J. Lagrange—"I. Joseph Vernet," 1 vol.; "II. Charles et Horace Vernet," 1 vol.; the second part of the "Histoire de Louvois depuis la Paix de Nimègue," par C. M. Rousset, 2 vols.;

"Éloges historiques," par M. Mignet, 1 vol.; "La Poésie et l'Éloquence à Rome," par M. J. Janin, 1 vol.; "L'Ancienne Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres," par M. Alfred Maury, 1 vol.; "Éloges Académiques: Études sur les Écoles, les Doctrines et les Mœurs médicales," par F. Dubois; "La Légende Celtique: La Poésie des Cloîtres Celtiques," par M. de la Villemarqué, 1 vol.; "Pluralité des Mondes habités, nouv. éd. augm.," par C. Flammarion, 1 vol.; "Histoire des Convulsionnaires de Saint-Médard, &c.," par M. Mathieu, 1 vol.; "Léonard da Vinci: sa Vie, son Œuvre," par M. Arsène Houssaye, 1 vol.

THE comparative quickness and marching capacity of French and German troops has been the subject of a wager between Julius von Wickedé, a retired Hanoverian officer, and a French general at Marseilles. One hundred Napoléons were laid against Herr von Wickedé's marching the whole way from Marseilles, by way of Grenoble, to Strasburg—between 500 and 600 miles—on foot, with the baggage of a French chasseur, within the space of fifteen days. He was not to taste during his march anything but cold roast meat, wine, and bread; and not to take up his abode at night anywhere but *sub Jove*. On the evening of the fourteenth day, twenty hours before his time, Herr Wickedé arrived safe and sound at the place of his destination, Strasburg, and shortly afterwards handed over half of his gains to the German and half to the French military pensioners. Only one small adventure happened to him on the road, somewhere near Grenoble, where, while he was sleeping under a hedge—according to the conditions of the wager—he was arrested by the dutiful rural policeman, who, without listening to his defence, brought him before the *maire*. The latter looked at his credentials, treated him well, and sent him eventually back to his hedge in peace.

THE spring-tide, the so-called *mascaret*, has lately been very strong at Caudebec and Villequier, on the Lower Seine. The astronomer Babinet and the engineer Eimery sent for the photographer Nadar, who succeeded in fixing the rare phenomenon very successfully in photography.

THERE has appeared at Franck's in Paris, "Tableaux généalogiques des Souverains de la France et de ses Feudateurs, par Ed. Garnier," 59 plates, with text.

THE "Horizons Célestes," by Countess Gasparin, has been translated into German, under the title "Der Blick in's Jenseits."

PROFESSOR HIPPEAU, in Caën, has been commissioned by the ducal family of Harcourt to arrange the archives of their ancestral residence, and to edit the many hitherto unknown documents referring to French history contained in it. These are said to be no less than three hundred in number, more especially consisting of letters from Henry III. and IV., and Louis XIII., XIV., &c.

A. F. PIOTOT has written "Réponse au Discours de S. M. Napoléon III., Empereur des Français, sur la Prospérité de la France."

"SERMONS sur le Spiritisme, prêchés à la Cathédrale de Metz les 27, 28, et 29 mai, 1863, par le R. P. Letierces, de la Compagnie de Jésus, considérés par un Spirite de Metz, et précédés de Considérations sur la Folie Spirite"—is the title of another work on a favourite topic.

A NEW statistical work is "Statistique et Documents relatifs au Sénatus-Consulte sur la Propriété Arabe, 1863."

"CORRESPONDANCE apocryphe entre M. Renan et sa sœur Ursule, à propos de l'ouvrage intitulé 'La Vie de Jésus,'" is a further addition to the Renan literature.

THE Renan literature continues "briak." We have, by J. Pé de Arros, "Coup d'œil sur le 'Vie de Jésus,'" by M. L. C. Pavy, "Conférence contre le Livre de M. Renan;" by Orsini, "Examen du Livre de M. Renan;" and by Hervé, "Divinité de Jésus, Réponse à M. Renan."

THE French Ministry of Commerce has published Coumes's "Rapport sur la Pisciculture et la Pêche fluviale en Angleterre, en Écosse, et en Irlande, considérées au double point de vue des Procédés de Production, tant naturels qu'artificiels, et de la Législation qui protège le Peuplement des Cours d'Eau, &c."

"RECHERCHES sur les Origines étymologiques de l'Idiome Catalan," par M. R. F. Camboulin, is the title of a new philological essay.

"COLBERT, Intendant de Magasin. Documents inédits du xvii<sup>e</sup> Siècle, Lettres, Instructions, et Mémoires de Colbert: publiés sur la Proposition du Ministre des Finances," par M. P. Clément, is an interesting historical publication.

A REPRINT of the "Armorial général de la France, ou Régistres de la Noblesse de France,

imprimés de 1738 à 1768, et composés par L. P. d'Hozier et D'Hozier de Sérigny, Juges d'Armes de France," is in course of preparation. The work will be in ten folio volumes.

THE two concluding volumes of the "Univers Pittoresque" have appeared. They are Prescott's "History of Mexico," published in French by A. Pichot, and "Asia Minor: Ancient History," by Le Bas and Chéron.

"LE Magnétisme, le Spiritisme, et la Possession. Entretien sur les Esprits entre un Theologien, un Philosophe, et un Médecin," par le R. P. Xavier Pailloux, de la Compagnie de Jésus, is the latest contribution in the matter of ghosts.

"LE Monde Romain et ses Nouveaux Historiens" is the title of a new critical essay by P. Rollet.

MALTE-BRUN has edited "Les Derniers Explorations du Docteur Alfred Penz dans la Région du haut-fleuve Blanc," with notes and a map.

ANOTHER contribution towards the solution of the convict-question is Jules de la Marque's (sous-chef au Ministère de l'Intérieur) recent work: "Des Colonies Pénitentiaires et du Patronage des Jeunes Libérés."

THE second edition of Langloy's "Rapprochement des Circonstances et Evénements qui ont précédés la Chute de Charles X. et de Louis Philippe I." has appeared.

AMONG the recent publications of the Dépôt de la Marine we notice, by Le Gras, "Phares des Côtes occidentales d'Afrique et des Îles éparses de l'Océan atlantique, corrigés en Août 1863."

"THOMAS MORUS" is the name of a new French tragedy by A. F. Maunoury.

"LAMENNAIS: sa Vie intime à la Chênaie," by J. Marie Peigné, has appeared.

"ALLIANCE de l'Agriculture avec la Religion," by Abbé Denis, has been published.

SCHILLER AND GOETHE.—On the 15th instant the first stone of the monument about to be raised in Frankfort in memory of Schiller was laid. In presence of a deputation of the senate, a number of valuable documents, of several pieces of money, some bottles of wine, and three balls, containing wheat, barley, and oats, were deposited in the hollow of the stone. Amongst the documents are a copy of the album presented by the town to the sovereigns who attended the banquet given at the Kaisersaal, as well as a photograph of the royal personages who took part in the Congress of 1863. The room in which the greater part of the tragedy of "Werther" was rehearsed before the eyes of the youthful and observant Goethe is about to be arranged in its original state. The furniture of the Buff family is said to be all but entirely preserved in various houses at Wetzlar. There can be no doubt, says a correspondent, as to the identity of the old-fashioned, crack-toned spinet which accompanied Lotte's charming songs.

THE third volume of Fürst's "Bibliotheca Judaica," is about to appear shortly.

A STAUFFACHER monument is to be erected in the Canton Schwyz. A committee has been formed to take the necessary steps.

A NEW weekly and a new daily have made their appearance at Vienna—the former entitled *Democritus: Organ for Science, Literature, Art, Practical Philosophy, and Merry Life*; the latter, *People's Journal*.

THE following is the feudal election-speech of *Kladderadatsch*, the Prussian *Punch*, at the "Association for the Improvement of the Idiotic Classes":—"Gentlemen! Yes is Yes, and No is No. That is to say, it entirely depends how I mean it. If I mean, when I say Yes, No; and, if No, Yes; then Yes is equal to No, and No is equal to Yes. Whoever disputes this endeavours to substitute a meaning for our Yes and our No which is utterly foreign to it. Our adversaries always like to pretend that Yes is Yes, and No is No; but they have, after all, not the proper courage to do so; and, instead of simply continuing always to repeat 'Yes is Yes,' they get nervous, and begin to be silent. Such cowards, gentlemen, are contemptible, even if the thing which they defend were not so. A strong brazen 'cheek,' however, does not shrink from anything; and therefore join with me in the cry, under which our successors already will once have been victorious—viz., Our Yes be No, and our No be Yes! Then all will certainly be well!" (Lasting applause.) The same paper puts the following conservative query to the world's history: "Could it not be arranged, in some shape or other, that the battle of Leipsic could have been won by 'Papa' Wrangel?"—(the conservative warrior who commanded the Schleswig-Holstein expedition, a standing Berlin "character," always at odds with grammar among other things.)



# THE READER.

24 OCTOBER, 1863.

Two new monographs by Zunz have appeared, entitled "Sterbetage"—a reprint, we believe—and "Die hebräischen Handschriften in Italien: ein Mahnruf des Rechts und der Wissenschaft."

The following are among the more or less recent works published *à propos* of the fiftieth anniversary of the battle of Leipsic: — Bärsh: "Ferdinand von Schill's Zug und Tod im Jahre 1809;" Berneck: "Die Schlachten bei Leipzig, Kriegsgemälde;" Mauritius: "Heinrich Friedrich Karl von und zum Stein;" Joachim Nettelbeck: "Bürger zu Kolberg, eine Lebensbeschreibung von ihm selbst aufgezeichnet;" Schneider: "Das Kriegsjahr 1813;" Stern: "Stein und sein Zeitalter;" Feldmarschall Blücher und der deutsche Befreiungskrieg," with 19 illustrations—the portraits of Blücher, Bülow, Gneisenau, Hardenberg, Kleist, Nettelbeck, Scharnhorst, Schill, Schwarzenberg, Stein, York, &c., &c.; "Vaterländisches Ehrenbuch, Schilderung der wichtigsten Ereignisse aus der Zeit der Befreiungskriege: in Bildern aus den Jahren, 1813—1815," by E. Grosse and F. Otto, &c. &c.

The following works have appeared in Russian translations:—Gervinus's "History of the Nineteenth Century;" Scherr's "General History of Literature;" Ritter's "History of Geography and Discoveries;" Vogt's "Physiological Letters;" and Garnier Pages' "History of the Revolution of 1848."

Two new novels by Schrader, "Die Falschmünzer" and "Hedwig," are advertised.

An interesting theological monograph, "Bardesanes of Edessa; together with an Examination of the Relation between the Clementine Recognitions and the 'Book of the Laws of the Countries,'" by Dr. A. Merx, is about to be published at Halle.

The fifth instalment of Zenker's "Dictionnaire Turc-Arabe-Persan" has appeared.

K. FREUZEL has written a new historical novel, "Pabst Ganganelli," in four volumes.

A NEW work on the life and manners of the ancients has appeared under the title, "Democrates; or, House, Hut, and Palace, Village, Town, and Capital of the Ancient World, from the Writings of the Ancients and after the Relics which have survived, with Parallels from the Middle Ages and Modern Times," by J. H. Krause.

A NEW monograph on the battle of Varus has appeared, under the title, "The Latest Writings on the Battle of Varus and Castel Aliso by A. Schierenberg, M. F. Essellen, and L. Reinking," by W. E. Gieffers.

The latest instalments of Heeren and Ukert's "History of European States" contains:—"The History of Poland," by J. Caro; "History of the Osmanic Empire in Europe," by J. W. Zinkeisen, with index by J. H. Möller.

THE nineteenth and twentieth volumes of Mügge's collected "Romane" have appeared at Trewendt, in Breslau. They contain "Die Vendeerin."

"ON the Synchronism and Antagonism of Volcanic Phenomena, and their Relations to the Solar Spots and Magnetic Variations of the Earth," is the title of a new work by Dr. Emil. Kluge.

WE learn the following curious details respecting the gambling proceeds at Wiesbaden and Ems, from the recent proceedings in the Nassau Chambers. The amount was:—

## IN WIESBADEN.

		Gross Receipts.		Net Receipts.	
		fl.	kr.	fl.	kr.
1857	Summer . . .	556,825	40	292,631	8
	Winter . . .	91,217	16	28,988	56
1858	Summer . . .	786,463	4	394,206	25
	Winter . . .	275,242	44	124,409	26
1859	Summer . . .	637,895	22	311,185	44
	Winter . . .	322,536	19	222,222	36
1860	Summer . . .	852,494	11	496,791	7
	Winter . . .	293,385	42	173,287	45

## IN EMS.

		Gross Receipts.		Net Receipts.	
		fl.	kr.	fl.	kr.
1857	. . .	400,566	58	251,832	1
1858	. . .	314,451	42	175,589	11
1859	. . .	294,900	32	157,263	53
1860	. . .	360,618	20	167,140	42

THE approaching Shakespeare Tercentenary has already produced several German anthologies. We mention "Rays of Light from Shakespeare's Works," by H. Marggraf; and a "Jubilee Collection of Shakespeare's Sentences and Sayings, with thirty-two illustrations," edited by Kreyssig.

THE well-known traveller and writer J. G. Kohl has been appointed librarian at the library of his native city, Bremen.

THERE has appeared, by Ewald, "The Fourth Book of Ezra; its Age, its Arabic Translations, and its New Restoration."

"ORIGINES et Cause Monachatus" is the title, of a monograph by J. Cropp.

THE first volume of the collected edition of Neander's works has appeared. It contains the "Geschichte der Pflanzung und Leitung der christl. Kirche durch die Apostel." Further, we have the first volume of Tholuck's collected works, "Die Lehre von der Sünde und vom Versöhner," &c.

At the meeting of the Gustavus-Adolphus Society, held recently at Lubeck, Herr Neumeister read an interesting paper on a certain massive nine-edged gold ring found some time ago underneath the church of Alt-Lubeck, bearing the inscription, "Thebal Guttani." Two similar rings exist in the Copenhagen Museum, and another has been found in this country. Professor Petersen from Hamburg had explained it to be a kind of abjuration-ring, with the formula "Wodan is Devil." This notion has now been confirmed, according to Herr Neumeister, by a certain gold-find lately made by peasants in Wallachia, which has been deposited at the Museum of Bucharest. This treasure, valued at 6000 ducats, formed, he thinks, part of the treasure of the king of the Western Goths, Athanarich, about 375 A.D., who buried it during his fight against the Huns, and among its precious relics there was also found a ring, five inches in diameter, with an inscription "Gutantowi hailag," which is explained "Sacred to Wodan." It would thus seem that, in contrast to the much younger ring of Lubeck, the ancient Bucharest one indicates the wearer's adherence to, and worship of, Wodan.

THE principal librarian, Berkholz, of Riga, has published a pamphlet, under the title, "Napoleon I., Author of the Will of Peter the Great." Berkholz tries to prove that the much spoken of will is a forgery, fabricated in France in 1812—a point for which there seems, indeed, to be a certain likelihood; more difficult, however, is the proof that Napoleon himself was the author.

"THE Banat Song-Book," a collection of German, Hungarian, Servian, Rumanian, Croatian, Slavonian, and Bohemian popular songs, is advertised.

THE *Journal de Constantinople* contains the following:—"The library of the palace of Top-Khanu, which has just been burnt down, has at all times been a problem to European scholars, who believed it to be filled with the most curious literary treasures of antiquity. It contained, according to their belief, works which had been saved at the Latin conquest, and had been carefully preserved and completed by the subsequent Greek emperors. Mahomed II., it was thought, had, at the taking of Constantinople, taken them from the palace of the patriarch and the various convents of the city, and consigned them to his own new palace. This, of course, is in direct contradiction to the historian Ducas, who records that they were all scattered broadcast in the streets and fields, 'that for one penny you bought ten manuscripts of Aristotle, Plato, theological books, and all kinds of books.' De la Valle, who visited Constantinople in the seventeenth century, was convinced that the fourteen decades of Livy, four of which alone are found in print, were to be found complete in the library of the Sérail. The Grand Duke of Tuscany promised at that time a sum of 5000 piasters (30,000 fr.), to any one who would steal these books, and the representative of Venice at the Ottoman Court offered 10,000 piasters (60,000 fr.) for the same object. It is also said that the *savans* who in 1453 were sent to Constantinople and Greece by Pope Nicholas to search for precious manuscripts, and to whom he is said to have promised a reward of 5000 ducats if they would bring him the original Hebrew of the Gospel of St. Matthew, persuaded themselves, and persuaded also his Holiness, that this document was to be found in the library of the Sérail. It has since, however, been fully established that the original was in reality written in Greek." [Which is not at all so certain as the *Journal de Constantinople* thinks.]

OF new Spanish books we notice: "El Martir de Gólgota, Tradiciones de Oriente," by Enrique Perez Eschrich; and "Los Mártires de Polonia: novela histórica original de Victor C. Feijóo."

## CORRESPONDENCE.

(Anonymous Communications cannot be inserted.)

### HERMANN'S STATUE AND THE FIFTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF THE BATTLE OF LEIPZIG.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Hanover, October 21, 1863.

SIR,—It is now more than twenty-six years ago since Ernest von Bandel, a talented sculptor, first conceived the idea of raising a monument to the memory of Arminius, or Hermann, a young chief-

tain who, anno 9, and in a battle of three days' duration, liberated his native country from the sway of Latium by defeating the three Roman legions which, under Quintilius Varus, held the whole of Germany between the Rhine and the Elbe. It required a strong faith in the self-culture of which the old Germanic tribes were capable, the eminent virtues which they possessed, the danger their morality was exposed to by contact with the corrupt practices of their Roman oppressors, and, above all, a pitch of national enthusiasm which few people share even in an age like ours, when nationality of every shade is rampant,—to look upon Hermann's achievement as any great benefit to Germany. The Teutonic tribes were in those days simply barbarians, who could only gain by an active intercourse with a people building them highways, bridges, decent towns, and fortified places, introducing laws and clothing, and teaching them the alphabet. To exchange all these advantages for a savage independence was the height of folly, if they could have but seen it at the time. As Heinrich Heine has put it, if the Romans had not been driven out an ass would have been called *asinus* throughout Fatherland—the word *Esel* would not have been in existence, and that would certainly have been a great misfortune. When, 800 years later, Charlemagne took the Germanic tribes once more in hand, and formed them in the Holy Roman Empire, destined to last 1000 years before it finally broke down in the beginning of this century, they had made but little progress in civilization, being in about the same condition as when Hermann enabled them once more to muddle on in their own way. Eight centuries of stagnation was the price paid for the gratification of giving a sound thrashing to a people whose presence conferred lasting benefits. Such being the real state of the case, it is intelligible that Herr von Bandel should have experienced considerable difficulty in raising the 100,000 thalers necessary for erecting a suitable monument to the first liberator of whom German history can boast. The long list of kings and kinglets were appealed to by him; and their subscription was as liberal as might be expected from a race always foremost in gratifying a popular wish. The old king of Prussia came down handsomely with £15, and the present king actually subscribed the magnificent sum of £2. 5s. However, as every little helps, and the smallest contributions were thankfully received, more than one-half of the sum required was brought together. The whole amount would long ere this have been collected if the political troubles of 1848 had not interrupted the even flow of petty cash. It is doubtful whether an attempt to raise a gigantic statue to the memory of Boadicea in England would be more successful, when, in the opinion of some, even Shakespeare is thought to have lived too long ago to make a monument desirable; and there can be no doubt that Bandel's conception would never have assumed a tangible shape if he had not submitted a model which was acknowledged to contain the germ of a real work of art, and which, placed amongst magnificent mountain scenery, full of historical import, would certainly command attention. The whole monument, when completed, will be 190 feet high, and consist of a cupola-like pedestal, 100 feet high, which may be ascended by a staircase, and upon which will be placed a gigantic figure of Hermann "in the dress of the period," holding in his uplifted right hand a straight sword, resting with his left arm on a shield, and having under his right sandal-clad foot a Roman eagle. The whole attitude is that of a warrior flushed with victory, and calling his companions to rally; and it is both commanding and graceful. The figure is to be entirely of copper; the skeleton supporting it, of iron. There being no effigy of Arminius extant, except a bust of doubtful genuineness of his son at the British Museum (the principal features of which have been copied), the whole may be called an ideal conception. The lower structure, now entirely completed, has been erected on the top of the Teutberg, near Detmold. It commands a magnificent view over the whole so-called Teutberg forest, the battle-field on which the Romans were defeated. You see the Weser river, the Porta Westphalica, and a fine range of hills, and get even a glimpse of the Brocken, the highest point of the Hartz mountains, where the pagans, dressed in fantastic attire, resorted to worship their gods, undisturbed when the whole country around was already converted to Christianity, down to a time when the voice of reform was already beginning to be heard in the very Church before whose proselytism they fled. A great part of the Hermann's statue has already been completed; and, as the funds begin to flow once more pretty freely—an active and respectable committee having lately been formed in



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this town to collect them into one focus—there is no doubt that in a few years the whole will be finished. Whilst the labours were suspended, the different parts had been left on the top of the Teutberg, where some were stolen; quite recently they have been brought to Hanover, where Herr von Bandel has erected suitable premises, near an iron-factory, and where, a few days ago, I had an opportunity of seeing them. I shall not go into details, but fill up the remaining space by adding a few words about the great national festival, the fiftieth anniversary of the battle of Leipzig, which the whole of Germany has yesterday been celebrating.

For some years, commencing with the 100th anniversary of the birthday of Schiller, Germany has availed herself of every opportunity to do justice to the memory of her great men, and the principal events of her eventful history, by a grand public celebration. The country is by this time pretty well accustomed to manage these festivals; they generally turn out creditably, are eminently calculated to promote good feeling and the national sentiment and idea of unity. Even a London cockney would probably be ready to own that, for instance, such a festival as the 1000th anniversary of the foundation of the town of Brunswick, which took place not long ago, beats the Lord Mayor's Show hollow. But there probably never was an anniversary celebrated with more general enthusiasm and greater splendour than that of the 18th of October, 1813, when the power of Napoleon was broken on the plains of Leipzig, and the French dominion in Germany came to an end. Throughout the whole length and breadth of the land, from the shores of the German Ocean to the Adriatic, there has been one great national demonstration, a loud demand for unity, and an ardent wish, expressed in a thousand different ways, to see the transition state in which the country has now entered brought to a speedy conclusion. There has been very little allusion to the French; indeed, whenever they were mentioned it was certainly not with any feelings of bitterness or in tones of defiance.

The culminating point of the whole was naturally at Leipzig, the great publishing-office of Germany, where everything had been done to make the festival go off with proper *éclat*. The city of Berlin, feeling that the régime at present unhappily established in Prussia would act like a wet blanket upon the general rejoicing, had at an early period determined to combine with Leipzig in celebrating the anniversary. The two cities had issued invitations to all the towns of the Confederation, and most of them had responded to the invitation by sending one or more delegates. A general invitation had also been given to those who were actively engaged in the great battle; and about 2000 have availed themselves of the proffered hospitality. But every other town, every village, has outdone itself in acting up to the occasion. I can only speak of Hanover as an eye-witness; but I may at once say that, though I have seen many brilliant sights, I never saw anything so truly fine as what I beheld in this town yesterday.

The weather was most magnificent—the sun shining brilliantly, and the air being as warm as in May. At six o'clock in the morning all the church bells began to ring, and the different Singvereine assembled near the principal church in the market-place to sing religious and patriotic airs. Afterwards, all the school-children, with national flags flying, went to church in procession—a very pretty spectacle. About eleven o'clock there was divine service in the Waterloo Platz, which all the troops here in garrison, headed by the king, attended. The great square had been elegantly ornamented, and a huge altar—entirely composed of arms, ammunition, helmets, &c.—had been erected in the centre. The whole town had been gaily decorated with garlands, fir-trees, and innumerable banners and streamers. Not a house, except the government-buildings, had been left unadorned. To the initiated, the style of decoration was extremely instructive. All those who belonged to the national party had hoisted none but the German colours—black, red, and yellow; but those who, either from interest or choice, endeavour to uphold the present state of affairs, and the division of the Fatherland into small principalities and kingdoms, merely exhibited the Hanoverian colours—yellow and white—or those of Saxe-Altenburg, in compliment to the Queen. Some who wished to offend neither party had displayed both the national and the state colours; and again, others, wishing to suspend their opinion until they see which way the wind is likely to blow in the next few years, contented themselves with simply decorating their houses with green boughs and garlands. Things have now come

to such a pass in Germany that a political leaning either to one side or the other is expected from every one, and many a domestic scene is the consequence. I have witnessed myself petty quarrels where the father was "reactionary," and his children acknowledged themselves in favour of the national movement. The women are, with few exceptions, on the side of progress; and yesterday many a wife assumed the national colours in spite of her husband's entreaties to the contrary.

The principal event of the day was the grand procession which had been organized, and which marched through the principal streets of the town to the Lindenerberg, a hill about 500 feet high, where tents and booths had been erected. The procession started at four o'clock in the afternoon, all the bells ringing merrily. Such was the number of people taking part in it that an hour and a half elapsed before the procession had quite passed the place I was stationed at. It was headed by a coach drawing the most infirm of the Leipzig heroes, accompanied by a favourite female sutler, who, fifty years ago, is said to have been very handsome; they were immediately succeeded by about sixty veterans bearing one of their old standards. These old people were almost inundated with flowers pouring upon them from the windows, and they must have been pretty well tired with shaking hands when the procession was over. Then followed bands of music playing patriotic and popular airs turned into marches, and all the societies, clubs, associations, trades-unions, guilds, schools—every one of these bodies being distinguished by its respective flag, and invariably carrying national banners, imperial German eagles, or signs of its trade on a gigantic scale. There were several thousand banners and standards, some of a very costly description. A most picturesque effect was produced by the journeymen and apprentices of the different trades appearing in their every-day dress (of course, all new): the rosy-looking butcher-boys in their print jackets and white aprons, turned back on one side as is their custom in this town, the bakers and pastry-cooks in their white caps and jackets, the manufacturers of ultramarine in their deep-blue blouses, the coal-miners in their black jackets and trousers, &c. The boys of the Polytechnic and other schools presented a fine appearance, especially those of the former, nearly all young men, who wore the uniform peculiar to the different "corps" into which they are associated, copied from what is customary at the German universities. One of the largest manufacturers of this town, M. Egestorff, who employs many thousand people in salt-works, iron-works, and coal-mines, had given new working dresses to all his men, and sent them to swell the procession.

It is impossible to give any idea of the enthusiasm that prevailed. The cheering, waving of handkerchiefs, throwing of flowers, and general excitement knew no bounds. Many were perfectly overpowered by all they heard and saw, and I noticed more than one face moistened with tears. When, towards dusk, the procession reached the Lindenerberg, outside the town, patriotic speeches were made by popular orators, and thousands and thousands of voices commenced singing—"Wo ist der Deutschen Vaterland?" which Arndt wrote at St. Petersburg, when Germany was held by the French, and which has now become the recognised programme of the national party. "Schleswig-Holstein Meerumschlungen" was also sung enthusiastically, and, together with Arndt's song, was the most frequently heard. As soon as evening had fairly set in there were fireworks, followed by the lighting of a grand bonfire—an ancient German as well as English custom, which was practised on a grand scale during the time of the Reformation, when the greater part of the country thus pronounced in favour of Luther. As soon as this bonfire was lit, all the surrounding villages lit theirs; and, as far as the eye could reach, the horizon was reddened by the general blaze. When the fire began to get low, the whole people formed themselves into a torchlight procession, wending their way to the general railway-station. During their progress through the town there was an immense excitement and enthusiasm, and a profusion of blue and red lights was everywhere displayed. Concerts, balls, suppers, speeches, took up the rest of the evening. In the Royal Theatre Schiller's "William Tell" was performed.

The political importance of this festival I shall not touch upon. The government here allowed the celebration to take place because it could not help it, and in several other states the same attitude was assumed; but they did not enter cordially into the affair, and thus lost another chance

of making themselves popular. An obnoxious order, that it would be considered disloyal to display the national colours was withdrawn only a day before the festival, because it was found that it would be disregarded, and that there would certainly be a disturbance instead of a celebration of a day which gave Germany peace, and somewhat restored its former prosperity.

## SHOOTING STARS.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Collingwood, Hawkhurst, October 19, 1863.

SIR,—In your impression of the 22nd August last you drew attention to a contrivance put into practice by the astronomer at the University of Rome for ascertaining the heights of shooting-stars at their periodical return.

Father Secchi in August 1861, aided by a baseline, 40 miles in length, between Rome and Civita-Vecchia, and the electric telegraph, by which observations of the same meteor at the two stations were insured, gathered some most valuable facts respecting the elevation of the shooting-stars of the 9th, 10th, and 11th of August in that year with a minimum of trouble and of liability to error. The following extracts from the Roman newspapers of the 13th August, 1861 were from the pen of Father Secchi, describing the immediate results of his experiments:—

"Near to the zenith no shooting-star had a parallax of less than 20 to 30 degrees, but occasionally a somewhat greater parallax than this, which was ascertained by the constellations intervening between the two apparent places of the meteors. It was impossible even for inexperienced observers to be mistaken in the meteors doubly seen. These observations, therefore, establish the moderate height of shooting-stars. For, if we admit a parallax of 35 degrees near the zenith to be not greater than was actually observed, their height at nearest approach to the earth will be 90 kilometers, or 50 geographical miles (58½ miles English), above its surface. On the other hand, the least parallax observed, of 20 degrees, implies an elevation of 180 kilometers (117 English miles) at their greatest height above the earth."

On the 10th of August last, observations were made at Hawkhurst which prove that the electric telegraph is *not an indispensable aid* in these inquiries. The use of a well-regulated time-keeper was found to insure the identification of a meteor, without the possibility of a mistake. A parallax of 35° was commonly observed between Cambridge and Hawkhurst, and of 15° between Greenwich, or London and Hawkhurst, at disappearance of the meteors. The following heights of appearance and disappearance observed on this occasion approximate in their average very nearly to the foregoing results obtained by Father Secchi:—

	ENGLISH MILES.									
Greatest height . . .	85,	56,	76,	88,	72,	73,	114.			
Least height . . .	57,	25,	45,	81,	56,	50,	73.			
Greatest height . . .	62,	133,	88,	64,	63,	110.				
Least height . . .	53,	64,	74,	52,	55,	63.				
Greatest height . . .	64,	106,	87,	80,	76,	63.				
Least height . . .	53,	53,	82,	57,	70,	63,	35.			
Mean height at appearance . . .	82 miles.									
Mean height at disappearance . . .	58 miles.									

I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

ALEXR. S. HERSCHEL.

## SCIENCE.

### THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION AT NEWCASTLE SECTIONAL REPORTS (continued).

ERRATA.—In our report of Section C., page 417, line 31 from top, Professor Wycliffe Thompson should read Professor James Thompson.

#### SECTION A.

*Report of Balloon Committee.* By Colonel Sykes.—The report referred the Section to the reports and observations of Mr. Glaisher, to be brought before them. They earnestly hoped that a mere mass of figures would not be inserted in the volume of their annual transactions without the explanatory diagrams, because in the absence of the diagrams the figures would be unintelligible. The Association owed a debt of gratitude to Mr. Glaisher for the ability, perseverance, and courage with which he had undertaken the hazardous labour of recording meteorological phenomena. New physical conditions had been discovered in the last two ascents; and the committee were of opinion that it would extend our scientific knowledge if they were re-appointed with a grant of £200 for the purpose of continuing the observations.



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*Report of Balloon Ascents.* By Mr. J. Glaisher, F.R.S.—We shall refer to this long and admirable report on a future occasion.

*On the Selenographical Relations between the Chain of Lunar Mountains the Alps with the Mare Imbrium and the Mare Frigoris.* By W. R. Birt, F.R.A.S. Communicated by Dr. Lee, F.R.S.—The mountains on the lunar surface, known as the Alps, extend from the Caucasian range bordering the N.E. portion of the Mare Serenitatis to the dark-floored crater Plato, approaching nearly to the summit of its western rim. From the Caucasian range to a point not very far west of Plato, the S.E. aspect of the Alps bordering the Mare Imbrium is precipitous—in this respect resembling most of the terrestrial chains of mountains bordering large oceans—and the mountains are much closer together and more chain-like than in the area towards the Mare Frigoris, where they are more or less detached, the one from the other. A large extent of surface, presenting a great variety of character—mountainous, rugged, pierced with numerous craters rising into an elevated crest, sometimes spreading out into considerable breadth, at others contracted to a narrow, neck-like kind of isthmus—extends from the Caucasus to the promontory La Place, which is the western jutting point of the rugged and mountainous border of the Sinus Iridum. The western part of this rugged land is occupied by the Alps. The middle exhibits a decidedly raised character, in which Plato appears to have been “sunk.” This walled plain is comparatively shallow. The eastern part of the tract above described is lower, and pierced with numerous craters, especially the portion immediately eastward of Plato, the largest crater (very much smaller indeed than Plato) being a conspicuous object, under the morning and evening illuminations. The smooth surface of the Mare Imbrium comes closely up to the tract above described; and at some little distance from the border several isolated mountains, soft ridges, and small craters are scattered here and there on the surface of the Mare, which are conspicuous objects under every aspect of illumination. The immediate object of this paper is to solicit the attention of astronomers to a continuation of the Alps on the northern side of the Mare Frigoris. The Alps, as laid down on our lunar maps, do not extend beyond the bright ground N. and N.W. of Plato. The boundary common to this bright ground and the Mare Frigoris is exceedingly well-defined; the contrast between the superior brilliancy of the bright ground, which is of the rugged character above-mentioned, gradually rises from the Mare Frigoris to the summit of the ring of Plato; and the same is observable of the ascent on the south side from the surface of the Mare Imbrium, with the exception of the slight depression of the site of the ancient crater Newton (Schröter.) In the monthly notices of the Royal Astronomical Society for May 1863, the author described a dark border common to the Mare Imbrium, the Alps and a bright portion extending from them to the south of Plato. Since writing that paper he has ascertained that this dark border is irrespective of any hypsometrical affections in this respect, resembling greatly the bright rays extending from the various ray-centres on the Moon's surface, which alike cross every variety of depression and elevation. Under an early illumination, a soft and slightly-elevated ridge, casting a well-defined shadow, is seen extending from a crater (which is some distance S.W. of Plato) to the small group of mountains, of which  $\lambda$ , at the foot of the Hartwell mountains, is the principal. The slight elevation of this ridge above the general surface of the Mare Imbrium and its continuity between this crater and Plato are well seen under both the morning and evening illuminations. The visibility of this ridge is fugitive; it disappears entirely under even a moderately high sun, and then the dark border, which is only manifested under an advanced stage of illumination, crosses it uninterruptedly. I am not aware that any other darker markings of this character have been hitherto traced on the lunar surface. The dark border greatly resembles, although in an opposite sense, the broad light mark crossing Geminus under the midday illumination, which is described in a paper presented to the British Association in 1859. The author has been somewhat particular in describing the independence of this dark border and any hypsometrical affections, as several patches of a similar kind are observed on the surface of the Mare Frigoris, especially near the centre. He has not yet detected much, if any, variation of level on the surface of the Mare Frigoris north of Plato, except a fault of an exceedingly well-marked character, not far

from the opposite or northern border of the Mare Frigoris. This fault clearly indicates a well-marked difference of level between the southern part of the Mare Frigoris adjoining the bright ground north of Plato and the northern portion. It is in this immediate neighbourhood that the northern boundary of the Mare Frigoris is exceedingly rugged and rocky, running into several promontories which extend towards Plato; and these promontories, combined with the fault above alluded to, clearly indicate a superior level for the land extending between Timeus and Fontenelle north of the Mare Frigoris. Shortly after sunrise, and a little before sunset, this high land is seen to be moderately in the direction of the Alps. As before remarked, the Alpine chain is most perfect in the neighbourhood of the Mare Imbrium—viz., from a little north of Cassini to the west extremity of a bright portion of land extending from it to Plato—the chain being indented by the wedge-shaped valley, the portion of bright land has but few mountains on it, and a few craters have been opened upon it. North of this portion of bright land, several detached mountains are scattered over the surface, interspersed with but few craters; and this territory may be regarded as the continuation of the Alpine mountains, as far as the southern boundary of the Mare Frigoris, by two well-marked groups of mountains west of Plato, the chain-like character and general direction being confined to the higher peaks bordering the Mare Imbrium. Between this interesting group of rugged and mountainous land and the Alps, the Mare Frigoris intervenes at a lower level. The ‘fault’ before alluded to clearly indicates a sinking down of a portion of the surface of the Mare, hereabouts, which is not only narrower than any other, but especially interesting from its being crossed by certain lucid streaks from the rayed crater Anaxagoras, which are more or less coincident with the promontories above-mentioned. The strait-like character of this portion of the Mare Frigoris, the existence of considerable mountain masses on each side, the well-marked depression of the Mare below the group of mountains on the north, and the ascent on the south towards the rim of Plato, strongly indicate the valley-like character of this part of the Mare Frigoris, and also that the group of mountains on the north may with great probability be regarded as a continuation of the great Alpine group on the south, a portion of the chain having been depressed when the valley of the Mare was produced.

*Description of an Instrument for Measuring the Height of a Cloud.* By the Rev. Professor Temple Chevalier.

*On the Experimental Series of Rain Gauges erected at Calne.* By Mr. G. J. Symons.—This was merely a preliminary announcement of the commencement of a series of experiments having for their object the determination, if possible, of the two following points:—1st, the best size and form of rain gauge—that is to say, the size and form the indications of which most truly represent the amount of rain actually reaching the surface of the earth; and, 2nd, the best height for the receiving surface to be placed above the ground, and, if it can be done, the variation in the amount collected, produced by its being placed at elevations different from the adopted best height. It is well known that gauges perfectly level with the surface catch more than they should from insplashing from the surrounding soil, and, on the other hand, less if placed at any considerable height, as on buildings, church towers, and other elevated points; but it is not known at what height insplashing ceases, nor at what height elevation above the ground begins to cause a perceptible decrease. Under these circumstances Major Ward, of Castle House, Calne, most handsomely undertook to conduct any useful experiments in his grounds, and to defray all expenses, so that some absolute determinate results might be obtained. The gauges now at work are twenty, divided into two series—one for determining the magnitude question consists of circular gauges 1 in., 2 in., 4 in., 5 in., 5 in. with a peculiar flange lip, 6 in., 8 in., 12 in., and 24 in. diameter; and two square ones of 25 in. and 100 in. area respectively;—these gauges are all exactly 1 ft. above the ground, and near to each other. The elevation series are 8 in. diameter placed level, 2 in., 6 in., 1 ft., 2 ft., 3 ft., 5 ft., 10 ft., and 20 ft. above the ground; an extra gauge, 5 in. in diameter, is placed at 20 ft.

*Meteorological Observations.* By the Rev. J. Rankine.—These were in continuation of the series forwarded for many years past by the author.

*On the Lunar Mare Smythii, the Phillips Walled Plain, the Percy Mountains, the New Craters Piazzi Smyth, Chevalier, and Wrottesley.*

By Dr. Lee, F.R.S.—The *Mare Smythii*\* is a large grey plain near the Moon's western limb, discovered August 20th, 1861, by Mr. Birt, by means of the Hartwell equatorial in the observatory of Dr. Lee. This extremely interesting portion of the lunar surface appears to have been overlooked by most of our selenographers. Situated on the circumference of the hemisphere visible from the Earth, it is periodically carried out of view, and again brought under our notice by the effect of libration; and, as it can only be seen to advantage a short time after the full of the Moon, when the evening terminator is beginning to appear on the western limb, the opportunities for observing it are rare. Under the conditions of the elements of the lunar orbit for 1861, 2, and 3, it has been well seen just after the full moons in August, September, and October. The only apparent record of it existing is a rude indication of it in the French map of Le Coururier, without number, reference, or remark. It was first seen on the night of August 20, 1861, and was then sufficiently striking, as a long, smooth grey Mare, to at once arrest attention. Its selenographical position, so far as it has been estimated, is as follows:—

Extent from North to South,  $3^{\circ}$  N. Lat. to  $9^{\circ}$  S.

Extent from East to West  $90^{\circ}$  W. Long. to  $100^{\circ}$  (?)

When the moon is in a state of mean libration, the Mare is entirely hidden by the western limb. Having briefly described the principal incidents in the discovery and establishment of this Mare, as being now a well-recognised portion of the Moon's surface, the author passed on to a description of its physical features, which are peculiarly interesting. Depicted on Beer and Mädler's map, near the Moon's western limb, is a somewhat large crater, Kastner; but, as is mostly the case with craters near the limb, its features are not so delineated as readily to recognise the object by its form. It can, however, be identified by its position. Mr. Birt's sketches show the eastern boundary or rim of the Mare Smythii crossing the crater Kastner unconformably—i.e., the wall of Kastner is incomplete, while that of the Mare Smythii is perfect, the apparent north-west wall of the crater Kastner being really a portion of the eastern wall of the Mare Smythii. There appears to be but one explanation of this—viz., that the crater Kastner is more ancient than the Mare Smythii, or at least than its eastern border. There are many incomplete craters on the borders of the maria; but they are mostly destitute, or nearly so, of walls towards the maria, the surfaces of the maria generally extending within the walls of the incomplete craters. The wall of Kastner, properly so called, is incomplete, for the eastern wall of the Mare Smythii certainly crosses it; and this appears to be a feature not common to the maria in general—viz., their walls crossing the surfaces of craters in the neighbourhoods of their boundaries. The rule is, that the walls of craters near the boundaries of the maria are mostly broken down; but here we have a wall actually blocking up the crater, as if the line of eruption forming the eastern boundary of the Mare Smythii had been thrown up perfectly irrespective of the pre-existing formations in the neighbourhood. The surface of the Mare Smythii is of precisely the same character as the surfaces of the other maria—beautifully smooth, with soft, gentle, undulating ridges, more or less parallel with the border—it differs in no respect from them. One crater has been opened up on the surface of this Mare; it is near the southern extremity, and somewhat in the direction of the south-west wall of Kastner.

The *Phillips Walled Plain* is situated in the south-east quadrant of the Moon's surface. It is the largest individualized locality on the Moon's surface unappropriated. On the 3rd of November last, while determining the direction of the terminator, to assist in specifying more distinctly the successive appearances of the lunar crater Plato, Mr. Birt noticed a large walled plain between Zuchius and Segner on the south and Phocylides on the north. At first he mistook this plain for Phocylides; but a more careful examination, assisted by the advancing illumination of the craters hereabouts, convinced him that his conjecture was erroneous, and that there actually exists here an extensive plain, nearly, if not entirely, surrounded by mountains, some consisting of independent chains, and others forming portions of the rings of neighbouring craters. Proceeding northwards from Zuchius on the east side, a chain

\* The name “Smythii” is given to this Mare in commemoration of the extensive and valuable astronomical labours of the accomplished and gallant admiral, the author of the “Celestial Cycle.”



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of mountains extends to about half way of the space between Zuchius and Phocylides. This wall of mountains is somewhat irregular, and is interrupted by a crater, unnamed, but found in Beer and Mädler's map. In this crater is a point marked by Beer and Mädler B. After this interruption the mountainous wall is continued to an elbow in the rim of Phocylides. The two chains of mountains are shown in Beer and Mädler's map. Proceeding northwards from Segner, a chain of mountains extends to the ring of a crater rather larger than the one on the eastern wall. The eastern rim of this crater forms the continuation of the border of the walled plain. The crater is complete, and contains a point marked C by Beer and Mädler. The wall is continued past this crater to a group of small ones arranged on the west side of a rather larger crater. This line of craters converges towards the southern extremity of Phocylides. Beer and Mädler do not give the independent portions of the west wall. The interior of this inclosure appears under the advanced illumination of this morning to be very smooth and level. Whatever roughnesses may exist, they can only be rendered apparent by the very oblique incidences of a rising or setting sun. There is one remarkable and interesting exception. It is a kind of promontory, terminating with a crater stretching towards the middle of the plain. It is indicated by Beer and Mädler.

The *Percy Mountains* are a fine chain extending from Gassendi to Cavendish. They have been named to honour the memory of Earl Percy, the late Duke of Northumberland, a well-known patron of astronomy, and the munificent donor of the "Northumberland" telescope to the University of Cambridge.

The crater *Piazzi Smyth* lies on the Mare Imbrium wall in Mr. Birt's "Plato Area." It is a small crater; but there are several quite as small that have received very distinguished appellations—Kirch, in its immediate neighbourhood, is not larger. The mountains designated on the chart of the Teneriffe mountains, now in course of construction, are all conspicuous objects, appearing as lucid spots in the full moon—they are very apparent on the photographs of Mr. De la Rue. Professor Smyth's name among these mountains will be commemorative of his experiment, in which he noticed the analogy between terrestrial and lunar forms.

The crater now named *Chevalier*, in honour of the distinguished astronomer and scholar, the Rev. Temple Chevalier, is a large unmapped crater south of Schikard. There exists in this locality a chain of five conspicuous craters—Wilson, Kircher, Zuchius, Belinus, and Segner; one of them, Segner, abuts on the unnamed crater on the south-west, and Zuchius nearly adjoins it on the south.

The new crater, *Wrottesley*—called after Lord Wrottesley, who has largely contributed to astronomical science—is the one marked C by MM. Beer and Mädler in this region, on a line drawn from Zuchius through Chevalier.

*On the Quantity and Centre of Gravity of Figures given in Perspective, or Homography.* By Professor Sylvester, F.R.S.

*On a New Marine and Mountain Barometer.* By Mr. W. Symons.—The barometer shown is a modification of one introduced by the author a few months ago, and is an adaptation of Gay-Lussac's; but, instead of having a vernier and scale to each tube of the syphon, an internal continuous metal tube is adjusted by a rack to the surface of the mercury in the short limb of the syphon, and the barometer is then read off in the usual way by a vernier and scale attached to the top of this internal tube, thus avoiding double reading and calculation. There is, also, an effectual method of making portable barometers by means of a leather plug on a steel wire, attached to a small handle at the side; by shifting this handle about one-fourth of an inch, the flow of mercury is completely stopped. In the barometer shown the liability to injury from sudden concussion is obviated, as the tube need not be rigidly fixed, but may be supported in any point by elastic material, without deranging the accuracy of the instrument.

*On a Maximum Thermometer with a new Index.* By Mr. W. Symons.—Alluding to the constant demand for thermometers with indices, and the materials of which the indices are made, it was stated that steel not only corrodes, but its specific gravity is too great. Graphite has been much used, and, if it be pure, it appears to answer every purpose; but occasionally there exist in it impurities which appear to corrode the mercury, and soil the tube. The author remarked that he had made a great number of experiments on the subject, and thinks

he has now succeeded in making a composition, the basis of which is clay, which fully answers the purpose; for the sake of distinction, as it partakes somewhat of the character of stone, he has named it "lithite." A considerable number of these thermometers have now been distributed, and as yet there has been no failure.

*On a certain Class of Mathematical Symbols.* By Mr. W. H. Russell.—In general a mathematical symbol, acting on a function of a variable, gives rise to another function of that variable. But there are certain symbols which produce by their action a function altogether independent of that variable. Such is the symbol employed by Cauchy in his investigations respecting the residual calculus. In this paper the attention of the Section was drawn to a class of symbols important in the solution of non-linear differential equations with one variable.

*Description of Professor W. Thomson's new Portable Electrometer.* By Mr. Fleeming Jenkin.—Various instruments called *electroscopes*, by which the presence of static electricity can be detected, have long been well known. These instruments, of which the gold-leaf electroscope is a familiar example, simply show that the body tested is in a different electrical condition from that of the earth. An *electrometer* is an instrument by which the difference between the electric potentials of two bodies is not only shown but measured. Professor Thomson has for some years been engaged with much success in improving the construction of electrometers; and the instrument exhibited at Newcastle is so simple in construction and easy of use that it will probably lead to a great increase in the number of those who study the phenomena of atmospheric electricity. Attention is especially directed to this application of the instrument, although, from the delicacy and accuracy of its indications, it is well suited for tests of insulation and other experiments well known to electricians. The instrument consists essentially of five different parts. *First*, a small Leyden jar, the outer coating of which is a strong brass case, covering the glass, entirely protecting it from injury, and screening the interior from all irregular electrical influences. The inner coating extends but a little way up the sides of the jar, and ends in a flat brass plate, forming, as it were, a second floor to the jar. The jar can only be charged by the temporary introduction of a little rod; when this is withdrawn it cannot be discharged, except by very slow conduction through the glass of the jar or over its surface. The *second* essential part of the instrument is a little light-balanced aluminium plate, let into the brass floor level with its surface, and so strung on a fine platinum wire as to be capable of a slight motion in a direction perpendicular to the plane of the floor. This little plate carries a long index, the position of which can be observed through the glass of the Leyden jar by an opening in the outer coating. A cross hair on the forked end of this index, by its position relatively to a fixed mark inside the jar, indicates when the little balanced plate is exactly level with the brass floor. This may be called the sighted position of the index. The balanced plate is in electrical connexion with the inside of the Leyden jar. The *third* essential part of the instrument is an insulated brass or aluminium disc, parallel to the brass floor opposite the light-balanced plate, and connected with a terminal projecting outside the Leyden jar through a small opening. This insulated plate can, by the terminal, be connected with the body to be tested, and, by the amount of the electrical attraction which it exerts on the balanced plate, indicates its electrical condition. The *fourth* part of the instrument is a micrometer screw, by which the distance of the insulated disc from the brass floor can be varied, and the difference of any two positions measured. The *fifth* and last part of the instrument is a lead cup containing pumice-stone slightly moistened with sulphuric acid, by which the air inside the jar is artificially dried, so as to prevent the loss of the charge of the Leyden jar by conduction over the surface of the glass. The instrument is used as follows. The jar is charged, say with positive electricity, by a small electrophorus, or by an electrical machine. The insulated disc is connected with the earth by depressing a little cap or cover on the terminal into contact with the outer coating of the jar. The micrometer screw is turned until the cross hair on the index is brought exactly into its sighted position. The number then shown on the micrometer screw-head is read, and is called the earth reading. The little cap on the terminal is now raised, and the terminal connected with the body to be tested. It will then be found that, if the body is electrified, the micrometer screw must be turned to a new position

to bring the cross hair again to the sighted position. The new number shown by the micrometer screw-head is again read, and called the test reading. The earth reading is subtracted from the test reading; and the difference will be a number measuring the difference of potentials between the earth and the tested body. If the difference is positive, the tested body is positive; and *vice versa*. This depends on the fact that, if the insulated disc be positively electrified, it must be lowered after the earth reading to bring the hair again to its sighted position; if negative, it must be raised. Thus the observation consists in observing the position of a cross hair, and taking two readings of a micrometer screw. The difference between the two readings will not be affected by the amount of charge in the Leyden jar. When atmospheric electricity is to be observed, a slow burning match is fixed to the terminal. The earth reading is taken with the little cap on the terminal, lowered against the brass cover. The air readings are taken with the little cap raised, insulating the disc terminal and match, which latter soon brings the insulated system to the potential of the surrounding air. It will be seen that the observation essentially consists in finding two positions in which the insulated disc, when at the two different potentials, exerts a constant force on the highly electrified little plate forming part of the large brass floor. Theory shows that the distance between these two positions in this arrangement is constant, whatever be the potential of the Leyden jar and its plate: a quality essential to the instrument, since the value of the readings would otherwise depend on a most variable and uncertain element. Owing to this quality, the indications of each instrument are constant, depending simply on its dimensions, and on the torsion of the platinum wire carrying the balanced plate. Thus the instrument is a true measuring instrument in the same sense that tangent and sine galvanometers are measuring instruments for voltaic currents. By the use of a coefficient, to be determined once for each instrument, the readings of all the instruments may be reduced to a common unit. Extremely small differences of potential are accurately shown and measured by this electrometer; for, in the first place, the actual force exerted even by small charges on the highly-electrified balanced plate is large when compared with the force exerted between two portions of one and the same charge, as in the gold-leaf or Peltier electroscopes; and, secondly, the condition of the balanced plate may be brought indefinitely near to that of unstable equilibrium; for, if the rate of variation of the torsion of the wire is greater than the rate at which the electrical attraction varies between the disc and plate, the equilibrium in the sighted position is stable; but, if the resistance by torsion varies less rapidly than the attraction, the equilibrium is unstable. It is not difficult to adjust the wire, so that the equilibrium is only very slightly stable. When in this condition, a variation in the distance between the disc and plate of  $\frac{1}{1000}$ th of the distance separating them produces a very sensible motion in the index. An equally small variation in the potential of the disc causes a very sensible motion of the index. It is expected that Mr. Glaisher, during the balloon ascents he is about to undertake, will obtain valuable results by the use of this instrument, showing the electrical state of the atmosphere at different heights in different states of the weather. It is also not improbable that it may afford some assistance to the new art of forecasting the weather. The instruments can be obtained from Messrs. Elliott Brothers, London, or from J. White of Glasgow.

*On the Mathematical Theory of Plane Water Lines.* By Professor Rankine, F.R.S.—This paper was taken as read.

## SECTION B.

*On Photoelectric Engraving and Observations upon sundry Processes of Photographic Engraving.* By Mr. Duncan C. Dallas.

*On the Analysis of Chinese Iron.* By Dr. Stevenson Macadam.

*Définir par la Végétation, l'Etat Moléculaire des Corps. Analyser la Terre Végétale par des Essais Raisonnés de Culture.* By M. Georges Ville.—The first part of this admirable memoir was read before the French Academy, and will be found in *Comptes-Rendus*, tom. lvii., pp. 461.

*Report on Synthetical Researches on the Formation of Minerals.* By M. Alphonse Gages.—The principal synthetical experiments were made on serpentine, and were based on the solubility of the hydrated silicate of magnesia. The second part of the inquiry related to the action exercised by organic animal matter on the production of minerals. The third part referred to such feldspathic



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solutions as are agents of metamorphism, and the influence of the chemical solution on the structure of some Cambrian rocks.

*On the Chemical and Physical Principles in connexion with the Specific Gravity of Solid Substances.* By Dr. Otto Richter.—The author endeavoured to show that chemistry has for its foundation not a simple, but a complex principle. It was the purely chemical principle, whatever its nature might be, that determined the various forms of molecular arrangement, and the various kinds of atoms which furnished the basis of calculations, while, on the other hand, it was the purely chemical principle which determined the atomic volumes of the molecules. The object of the writer was to establish a trustworthy series of specific gravities, with the view of modifying the chemical and physical energies of the atomic system; and in this direction he had compiled a number of tables, the publication of which he has in contemplation. He suggested that a committee might be chosen to investigate the subject.

*On a New Form of Gas Battery.* By Mr. W. Symonds.

*On the Manufacture of Superphosphates and Dissolved Bones.* By Dr. S. Macadam.

*Recent Applications of the Hydrocarbons derived from Artificial and Natural Sources.* By Mr. B. H. Paul.

## SECTION D.

*On the Physical Geography of the Malay Archipelago.* By Mr. A. R. Wallace.—“It first becomes necessary to define accurately the limits of the Archipelago, pointing out exactly what islands we include within it; for, though ‘all the islands between south-eastern Asia and Australia’ seem pretty definite, yet to the eastward this region blends insensibly into the vast extent of the Pacific Islands. According to my views, the Malay—or, as I should prefer to name it, the Indo-Australian—Archipelago extends from the Nicobar Islands on the north-west to St. Christoval, one of the Solomon Islands, on the south-east, and from Luzon on the north to Rotti, near Timor, on the south. The eastern boundary is drawn at this particular point for reasons which will be explained further on. Though not geographically correct to include any part of a continent in an archipelago, it is necessary for our purpose to consider the Malay peninsula as not only almost, but quite an island, since it cannot be physically separated from the region of which we are now treating. Thus limited, the Archipelago is of a somewhat triangular form, with an extreme length of about 5000, and breadth of rather more than 2000 English miles. The mere statement of these dimensions, however, will give but an imperfect idea of the extent and geographical importance of this region, which, owing to its peculiar position, is worse represented on maps than any other on the globe. In many atlases of great pretension there is no map of the whole Archipelago. A small portion of it generally comes in with Asia, and another piece with the Pacific Islands; but, in order to ascertain its form and extent as a whole, we are almost always obliged to turn to the map of the Eastern Hemisphere. It thus happens that, seldom seeing this region, except on a diminutive scale, its real form and dimensions, and the size, situations, and names of its component islands, are, perhaps, less familiar to educated persons than those of any other countries of equal importance. They can hardly bring themselves to imagine that this sea of islands is really in many respects comparable with the great continents of the earth. The traveller, however, soon acquires different ideas. He finds himself sailing for days, or even for weeks, along the shores of one of these great islands, often so great that the inhabitants believe it to be a boundless continent. He finds that voyages among these islands are commonly reckoned by weeks and months, and that the inhabitants of the eastern and western portions of the Archipelago are as mutually unknown to each other as are the native races of North and South America. On visiting the coasts of one of the larger islands, he hears of the distinct kingdoms which lie along its shores; of the remote north or east or south, of which he can obtain little definite information; and of the wild and inaccessible interior, inhabited by cannibals and demons, the haunt of the charmed deer, which bears a precious jewel in its forehead, and of the primal men who have not yet lost their tails. The traveller, therefore, soon looks upon this region as one altogether apart. He finds it possesses its own races of men and its own aspects of nature. It is an island-world, with insular ideas and feelings, customs, and modes of speech—altogether cut off from the great continents into which we are accustomed to divide the globe, and

quite incapable of being classed with any of them. Its dimensions, too, are continental. You may travel as many thousand miles across it, in various directions, occupying as many weeks and months as would be necessary to explore any of the so-called quarters of the globe. It contains as much variety in its climate, in its physical phenomena, its animate and inanimate life, and its races of mankind, as some of those regions exhibit. If, therefore, the claim of Australia to be a fifth division of the globe be admitted, I would ask for this great Archipelago (at least on the present occasion) to be considered a sixth. Looking at a map on which the volcanic regions of the Archipelago are marked out—those which are subject to earthquakes, which are of volcanic origin, and which abound more or less in extinct as well as active volcanoes—we see at a glance that the great islands of Borneo and Celebes form the central mass around which the volcanic islands are distributed, so as rudely to follow their outline and embrace them on every side but one in a vast fiery girdle. Along this great volcanic band (about 5000 miles in length) at least fifty mountains are continually active, visibly emitting smoke or vapour; a much larger number are known to have been in eruption during the last 300 years; while the number which are so decidedly of volcanic origin, that they may at any moment burst forth again, must be reckoned by hundreds.” After alluding to the many fearful eruptions that have taken place in this region, and the volcanic nature of the islands generally, the author remarked upon the contrasts of vegetation and of climate in the Archipelago, which may be best considered together—the one being to some extent dependent on the other. “Placed immediately on the Equator, and surrounded by extensive oceans, it is not surprising that the various islands of the Archipelago should be almost always clothed with a forest vegetation from the level of the sea to the summits of the loftiest mountains. This is the general rule. Sumatra, New Guinea, Borneo, the Philippines, and the Moluccas, and the uncultivated parts of Java and the Celebes, are all forest countries, except a few small and unimportant tracts, due perhaps, in some cases, to ancient cultivation or accidental fires. To this, however, there is one important exception in the island of Timor, and all the smaller islands opposite, in which there is absolutely no forest such as exists in the other islands; and this character extends in a lesser degree to Flores, Sumbawa, Lombok, and Bali. The changes of the monsoons and of the wet and dry seasons in some parts of the Archipelago are very puzzling; and an accurate series of observations in numerous localities is required to elucidate them. Speaking generally, the whole south-western part of the Archipelago, including the whole range of islands from Sumatra to Timor, with the larger half of Borneo and the southern peninsula of Celebes, have a dry season from April to November with the south-east monsoon. This same wind, however, bends round Borneo, becoming the south-west monsoon in the China Sea, and bringing the rainy season to northern Borneo and the Philippines. In the Moluccas and New Guinea the seasons are most uncertain. In the south-east monsoon, from April to November, it is often stormy at sea, while on the islands it is very fine weather. There is generally not more than two or three months of dry hot weather about August and September. This is the case in the northern extremity of Celebes and in Bouru; whereas, in Amboyna, July and August are the worst months in the year. In Ternate, where I resided at intervals for three years, I never could find out which was the wet and which the dry season. The same is the case at Banda, and a similar uncertainty prevails in Menado, showing probably that the proximity of active volcanoes has a great disturbing meteorological influence. In New Guinea a great amount of rain falls more or less all the year round. On the whole, the only general statement we can make seems to be that the countries within about 3 degs. on each side of the Equator have much rain and not very strongly-contrasted seasons; while those with more south or north latitude have daily rains during about four months in the year, while for five or six months there is almost always a cloudless sky and a continual drought.” The author next considered the Malayan Archipelago in its geological and zoological relations to Asia and to Australia, mentioning the well-established fact that one portion of it is almost as much Asiatic in its organic productions as the British Isles are European, while the remainder bears the same relation to Australia that the West India Islands do to America.

In the discussion which followed, Mr. John Gould could entirely confirm most of what Mr. Wallace had stated, and in some cases the division

was so distinctly defined that one species was found on one side, and another on the other, of a stream no broader than the Thames at London.

Mr. Newton referred to the fauna of Madagascar, and gave his opinion in favour of the deduction that the straits separating that island must be of very ancient date.

The Rev. H. B. Tristram was in hopes that the discussion would have elicited some further information upon the general points raised the day before—Mr. Wallace’s allusion to the six divisions of the world, and the inferences which he (Mr. Tristram) had endeavoured to draw from them assuming that gentleman’s premises. He had used the word centres of creation, but he admitted the force of the objection which had been raised to that expression, and was delighted to adopt Mr. Wallace’s suggestion and call them centres of dispersion, which he thought better and more in his favour. Many of his friends admitted the truth of his theory; but many of them—like Sir W. Jardine—were of opinion that their present knowledge of the facts was not sufficient to bring out the general laws which he had laid down. Of course they must in all such matters have some definite object in view; all their studies of individual species must end in some philosophical general conclusion. It was no use going on collecting specimens and dividing species after species unless they put them to some use. They had before them the fact that there were an immense number of so-called species so very closely connected that it was impossible to say where one began and another ended. The whole of the researches in this respect went to prove the Darwinian theory that certain species, under certain circumstances, would develop peculiarities, and that those peculiarities would, under some conditions, become hereditary. Unless they accepted the theory that there were centres of dispersion, how could they account for the representative species appearing according to certain principles east and west of a certain line? Might not some species, from causes unknown to us, have a tendency, under different circumstances of food and climate, to vary, while the water-birds were much less affected by the same causes? Bermuda, when it was discovered by the Spaniards, had not, as it was well known, any trace of a human being ever having been there before; but it was swarming with birds, such as the puffin and petrel. The birds, however, which had a constant residence there, were not the birds of the nearest land, but the birds of the same parallel of latitude—of Virginia and North Carolina. They might conclude, therefore, that even the sedentary birds would find their way to these islands, and, if they did alight upon a coast which suited them, would remain and breed there.

Mr. Wallace remarked that his object in the previous paper was to show that the six large divisions of the earth which were generally accepted by ornithologists as the best for birds would also apply to the animals, and in all those cases where there appeared to be a discrepancy, he had endeavoured to explain its origin. In the paper now read he had endeavoured to give an instance of the division; and the case which he had selected was a remarkable one, because, though the islands appeared to be mixed up so inexplicably together that no external difference could be noticed, and the idea would be that the changes in animals and plants would be from the one to the other by little and little from Sumatra to New Guinea, the fact was, that in the middle was an abrupt line, which changed not merely the species, but the orders of animals. The facts in this case were so striking that they might be taken, even with the amount of evidence they now had, to be absolutely proved; for, even if it should turn out in after years that some one of the orders did not occur on the side on which it should occur according to his theory, there was still the great mass of evidence remaining. It was one of the most extraordinary features of the Australian fauna that there were so many rats and mice; but, as these were the smallest of the mammalia, it was easy to conceive that, in the course of ages, they might have accidentally got there from some of the islands of the west which abounded in them.

*Report upon the Natural History of the Island of Formosa.* By Mr. R. Swinhoe.—In this paper the author referred to eighteen species of mammals previously described by him before the Zoological Society of London, and pointed out that the mammals, birds and reptiles all showed a connexion with China rather than with Japan.

*On the Great Divisions of the Pacific Islands’ Fauna.* By Mr. W. H. Pease. Communicated by Mr. Carpenter.—The connexion of the Hawaiian Islands with the northern part of



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Japan by a series of sunken islands, identical in fauna with the Hawaiian, and the non-existence of certain islands appearing on the charts between that group and the coast of America, were dwelt upon with reference to the peculiarities of the existing fauna.

*Supplementary Report on the Present State of our Knowledge of the Mollusca of the West Coast of North America.* By Mr. P. P. Carpenter.—This consisted of corrections of the first report, and a résumé of the information which had accumulated since its date. The most important results of recent investigation were the geological evidence of a recent connexion between the waters of the West Indies and the Pacific, and also of the comparatively recent elevation of many parts of the Rocky mountains, and the probable connexion of the North Pacific and North Atlantic during the Eocene and probably the Miocene periods.

## SUB-SECTION D.

*On Cranial Deformities, more especially on the Scaphocephalic Skull.* By Mr. W. Tinner.—The author commenced by stating that deformities of the skull might be occasioned by artificial means, by posthumous changes, by pathological changes, and by developmental irregularities and deficiencies. He in a great measure restricted himself to the consideration of the influence which premature or retarded synostosis may exercise in the production of abnormal cranial forms. He arranged the sections of the skull-cap into a vertical-transverse group, a median longitudinal and two lateral longitudinal; and, carrying out the important proposition clearly enunciated by Professor Virchow, he pointed out that, if a premature ossification takes place in one or more than one of the whole or a part of a suture, then, necessarily, the growth of the skull corresponding to and in a direction perpendicular to the line of synostosis will occur, and diminished length or breadth, or height, as the case may be, will be occasioned. He then illustrated this proposition by describing the peculiarly elongated and laterally compressed form of skull to which Professor Von Baer of St. Petersburg has given the name of Scaphocephalus. The whole of these crania agreed in possessing the following characters:—Absence of sagittal suture and consequent blending of the two parietal bones, absence of parietal eminences, lateral compression, and great elongation. He then described at length the theories which had been advanced in explanation of these characters. The first proposed by Minchin, and adopted by Von Baer, supposes that the biparietal bone is developed from a single median vertical centre. The second, proposed by Virchow, and concurred in by the author, supposes the two bones to have been formed in the usual way, each from its own centre, but that at a very early period they coalesced along the sagittal line so as to form but a single bone. The author then directed attention to the importance of attending to the above proposition in ethnological inquiry, and suggested that various aberrant forms of skull, occurring in individuals of any given nationality, possessing a shape quite different from that of the race to which they belong, might be thus explained. He pointed out, moreover, that obliteration of the sutures was not unfrequently met with in the skulls of the Flathead Indians which had been artificially flattened. He was of opinion that premature synostosis did not necessarily occasion any disorder of the faculties of the mind, or any tendency to cerebral disease. Persons possessing crania of this form do not belong to any particular race, neither do they exhibit any special tendency to cerebral disease or mental incapacity.

*On Life in the Atmosphere.* By Mr. James Samuelson.—The author commenced by saying that no subject in natural history, excepting the allied one, the origin of species, had of late excited greater interest than the origin of the lowest types of living beings on the globe, which had led to investigation, the indirect effect of which had been to throw fresh light on the anatomy and life-history of the mysterious forms of which the subject treats. It was with the latter view, chiefly, that the author laid before the Association the results of his recent experiments on Atmospheric Micrography, and passed briefly in review the leading facts connected with the "Spontaneous Generation" controversy, quoting the leading expressions of Professor Pouchet of Rouen, Messrs. Jolly and Musset, &c., in favour of, and those of Pasteur in opposition to, the doctrine. He also touched upon the experiments of Wyman of Boston, who has recently entered the lists as the advocate of heterogenesis, and of his own, which, irrespective of those he has published, were rather

adverse to the doctrine than otherwise. As our readers will think, however, Mr. Samuelson's experiments to be now described present features totally opposed to what ought to be expected if the doctrine of heterogenesis were true: for he found in distilled water, containing the dust of various countries, many of the chief infusorial animalculæ usually supposed by the advocates of "heterogenesis" to be spontaneously produced in infusions of decaying organic matters. Let us briefly recapitulate the chief results of these experiments. In 1862, in conjunction with Dr. Balbiani of Paris (the author of a very accurate and interesting work, recently published, "On the Reproductive Organs of Infusoria"), he exposed certain infusions in Paris and Liverpool, and in both places and in all the infusions the same forms were found amongst dissimilar ones. Some of these were traced to the dust on the windows of the operators; and in one case Mr. Samuelson found in pure distilled water, after it had been exposed to the atmosphere for a few days, the same form (*Cercomonas acuminata*, Dujardin) as he had found in his infusions, in dust taken from the high road, and in the catalogue of infusoria forwarded by Dr. Balbiani, as having been present in his infusions. Encouraged by these results, the author obtained dust by shaking rags imported from the following countries—namely, Melbourne, Japan, Alexandria, Tunis, Trieste, and Peru—and these different kinds of dust he kept until June, 1863, and then sifted them through muslin on the surface of distilled water, each kind having, of course, its appropriate vessel of water. He also exposed pure distilled water in a three-partitioned box covered with lids of blue, red, and yellow glass. The results of these experiments, he read before the Academy of Sciences in July, and in the same month he repeated them, which were concluded just before the meeting of the Association. The following are the results obtained from this double set of experiments:—In the case of the distilled water, exposed under coloured glass lids (partially open), the glass intercepted the dust, and there was hardly any sign of life. When the dust was washed into the distilled water, a light deposit settled at the bottom of the vessels, and, on examination under a low power the subsequent day, the author found mineral particles imbedded in a gelatinous film. (He examined the deposit without removing it from the vessel, by pouring off the water and placing the glass vessel itself under his instrument.) This film, under a higher power, was resolved into a mass of minute, fixed monads, possessing a tremulous motion. The next day a re-examination showed that these monads had become active, and peopled the water. So much for the distilled water only. Now as regards the various kinds of dust. In that of Egypt, Japan, Melbourne, and Trieste, life was the most abundant, and the development of the different forms was very rapid. These consisted of Protophytes, Rhizopoda, and true Infusoria. In most of the vessels he first observed the forms known as Monads and Vibrions; and from these he traced the development, first of one, and then of another species of Infusoria. In the dust of Egypt he found a new Amœba, whose motions were very rapid, and the pseudopodia of which he compared, both as regards their shape and mode of formation, to the soap-bubbles blown by children with a pipe. He described the normal globular form of this Amœba, its gradual changes until its pseudopodia were in full action, its conjugation, and some other phenomena in its life-history. In the same dust, and in this only, he clearly traced the development of *Protococcus viridis*, which was, at last, present in such numbers as to tinge the water green. In the dust from Egypt, Melbourne, and Trieste, he found *Cercomonas acuminata* (Dujardin), which his colleague and he had found in the dust of Paris and Liverpool; and in Egypt he followed the development of an entirely new form, from a long "vibrion." He thus describes this new type: "It was an annulated vermiform animalcule, the ring being quite distinct, and each one furnished with cilia. The whole series of cilia extending along the body acted in concert, imparting to the animalcule a motion precisely resembling Naïs amongst fresh water, and Nereis amongst marine annelides. Beyond the distinct flashing of the cilia (of which he could not count the number on each ring), a circle on the anterior segment, and what appeared to be a canal running through the whole length of the body, neither organs nor members could be traced. Each ring had, however, a distinct existence, for they were cast off from time to time, and moved about freely. The animalcule grew by the subdivision of its ring, and became divided by their separation. It moved freely backwards or

forwards, and often, when divided into two parts, which remained attached to one another, an independent ciliary action was noticeable on each, but not such as to interfere with the movements of the whole." He further described how its annulated structure was gradually converted to a smooth surface; and some other changes which he observed. Its length varied from  $\frac{1}{150}$  to  $\frac{1}{100}$  inch; and he regarded it as a larval form, or series of forms, bearing the same relation to some other (unknown) Infusorium as the Strobila larva does to some of the Medusæ. In the dust of Japan he followed the development of a monad, first into what appeared to be a minute paramécium, then into *Lorodes cucullulus* (Dujardin), and finally into *Colpoda cucullus* (Dujardin), and his experiments are quite confirmatory of the supposition that many Infusoria now classed as distinct types are really one and the same species in different stages of development. He also found, as stated by Dr. Wallich, that certain Amœbæ (*A. radiosa*) are only another stage of others that have been described as distinct types, just as in the case of the Infusoria. Our space will not admit of our transcribing more of these experiments, the recital of which was profusely illustrated with diagrammatic plates; but we believe our readers will agree with us that they open out an entirely new field for microscopists, and deal a heavy blow at the doctrine of heterogenesis as at present understood. Mr. Samuelson's conclusions are in one sense rather amusing. In drawing attention to the tenacity of life possessed by the germs which were revived under his eye, he says that, in his case, they survived the heat of a tropical sun and the warmth of his room; but in that of Dr. Pouchet (the leading partisan of spontaneous generation), who obtained his dust from the interior of the pyramids of Egypt, "they retained their life 2000 years, and then survived an oil bath of 400° of heat." We cannot close these observations without referring to a useful practical application of these experiments, suggested by the author, and approved by the President of the Section, Professor Rolleston, and by many gentlemen who were present at the delivery of the lecture—namely, the examination of the air of hospital wards, in order to trace, if possible, the existence of germs likely to cause epidemic disease. Mr. Samuelson claimed no originality for this suggestion, for he said that Dr. Pouchet had spoken of such an investigation; but he believed that, with the peculiar views entertained by the French naturalist, he could hardly be expected to go to his work with an unprejudiced mind, and with a chance of practical good resulting. He therefore recommended our hospital surgeons to make the test. In this view Professor Rolleston quite concurred; and several valuable hints were thrown out as to the best means of conducting the investigation.

*On the Physiological Effects produced by Several Apparatus contrived for the Purpose of Causing a Vacuum upon the Entire Body, or a Part thereof.* By Dr. Junod.—The paper consisted of an article previously communicated to the *Lancet*, to which periodical, therefore, we refer our readers.

*On the Dietaries of the Lancashire Operatives, and On the Dietaries of the Labouring Classes.* By Dr. E. Smith.—In these two papers (composed chiefly of printed matter from reports of the Board of Health) the author compared the various kinds of ordinary food with respect to their nutritious qualities—flesh-meat, flour, potatoes, rice, tea, coffee, &c.—and gave several tables of breakfasts and dinners for the working classes, showing how nutritious meals could be provided at small expense.

*On the Coal-Miners of Durham and Northumberland, their Habits and Diseases.* By Dr. Wilson.—An admirable paper, giving a full account of the work and habits and habitats of the northern pitmen, among whom the author has lived for the last twelve years. The paper was supplemented by statistics, showing the diseases to which miners are most liable, and the comparative health of the miners in the different mining districts.

*On a Miner's Safety Mask for Supporting Life in Fire-damp and other Noxious Vapours.* By Dr. B. W. Richardson.—The author's researches have been carried out in three directions—first, to construct a mask that shall give oxygen to workmen in case of necessity; second, to construct a mask that shall render the ordinary oxygen more active and meet the effects of the poison; third, to construct a mask that shall separate the poisonous gas from the air. The author remarks that as yet there is no substance which will yield sufficient oxygen at the temperature of the breath to enable a mask to be constructed that would be portable and of immediate application. The



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second method is the one that promises most important results. In this principal a mask is required having a double valve action like a Snow's inhaler for chloroform; the air in this case, as it enters the lungs, is made to pass over bodies which have the effect of ozonizing it, of rendering the oxygen more active, and of decomposing to a limited extent the dangerous products. Up to this time iodine has been found most effective for rendering the air more active. Iodine can be used with the double valved mask in a most simple manner, by attaching a small box containing perforated plates to the inhaler beneath the valve for the entrance of the air; and, by placing the iodine on these surfaces, a little chamber is made, which may be opened and closed at pleasure, and through which the air may be drawn. The author considers that Professor Graham's discovery of dialysis may assist in solving the difficult problem set by the third method of construction.

*On a Parasitical Acarus of the Anodon.* By Mr. R. Garner.

*How to Restore Drowned Persons, Patients in Chloroform Accidents, &c.* By Dr. Kidd.

## SECTION E.

*On the recent Discovery of Lacustrine Human Habitations in Wigtonshire.* By Lord Lovaine.—“Dowalton Loch, in which the structures were discovered, is of irregular form, two miles long and half a mile broad, situated in Wigtonshire, at the end of a narrow valley five miles in extent, the whole of which is occupied by a moss, part of whose waters flow into the loch, and the remainder into the sea near Monreith, the elevation of the water-shed near the middle of the valley being almost imperceptible. Sir William Maxwell has effected the drainage of this loch by a cutting at its southern extremity of no less than twenty-five feet deep, for a considerable distance through the wall of whinstone and slate that closes the valley. The water having been partially drawn off, the bed of the loch exhibits the appearance of an immense sheet of mud, surrounded by beaches of different elevations, covered with large rolled stones and angular blocks of slate. It contains a few small islets, composed apparently of the same materials as the beaches. Sir W. Maxwell, having heard that a bronze vessel had been found in the mud near the southern shore, succeeded in obtaining it, but could not trace other articles of the same description reported to have been found near it. On visiting the spot, 19th August, 1863, to obtain further information, I observed some timbers standing on an island near the centre of the loch, and was told that some one had been there in a boat when it first appeared above water, and had found bones, a small granite quern, and piles; and a spot was pointed out to me at the extremity of one of the little promontories where similar piles were observable, which, on inspection, I found to be true. These piles varied from a foot to eighteen inches in circumference. Sir W. Maxwell's bailiff, Mr. Chalmers, who displayed great zeal and intelligence throughout these researches, having proceeded to the spot to secure labourers for the next day's search, reported that, though it was not possible to reach the larger island, a smaller one was accessible, and that a canoe lay near it. On reaching the island, over about 40 yards of mud, I found it nearly circular, about 38 yards in circumference, and 13 in diameter. It was elevated about 5½ feet above the mud, and on each side of it were two patches of stone, nearly touching it. On the north side of it lay a canoe of oak, between the two patches, and surrounded by piles, the heads just appearing above the surface of the mud; it was 24 feet long, 4 feet 2 inches broad in the middle, and 7 inches deep, the thickness of the bottom being 2 inches. On removing the stones which covered the surface, several teeth, apparently of swine and oxen, were found; and I proceeded to cut a trench round the islet; and, upon coming to the southern end, a small quantity of ashes were turned up, in which were teeth and burnt bones, a piece of a fine earthenware armlet of a yellow colour, and a large broken earthenware bead, striped blue and white, together with a small metal ornament, apparently gilt; two other pieces of an armlet of the same material, one striped with blue and white, were also found on the surface. On cutting deeper into the structure (the foregoing objects having been found on the outside about two feet from the top), it proved to be wholly artificial, resting on the soft bottom of the loch; the uppermost layer was a mass of brushwood about two feet thick; beneath it large branches and stems of small trees, mostly hazel and birch, mingled with large stones,

evidently added to compress the mass; below that were layers of heather and brushwood, intermingled with stones and soil, the whole resting upon a bed of fern about one foot thick, which appeared in all the structures examined to form the foundation. The whole mass was pinned together by piles and stakes of oak and willow, some of them driven 2½ feet into the bottom of the loch, similar to those above-mentioned. The islet was surrounded by an immense number of those, extending to a distance of 20 yards around it, and the masses of stone, which apparently were meant to act as breakwaters, were laid amongst them. The one next examined stood about 60 yards off, at the extremity of a rocky projection into the loch, but separated from it by the now hardened mud. It was smaller, and the layers were not so distinctly marked, and some of the timbers inserted in it under the first layer of brushwood were larger, and either split or cut to a face. A stake, with two holes bored in it about the size of a finger, a thin piece of wood in which mortices had been cut, and a sort of box, the interior of which was about six inches cube, with a ledge to receive the cover, very rudely cut out of a block of wood, were found. I succeeded two days afterwards in reaching the largest islet. It was three feet below the level of the other islets, was much larger, and several depressions on its surface showed that it had sunk. Wherever the soil was not covered with stones and silt, teeth were scattered all over it. We found quantities of bones at different depths in the mass, but always below the upper layer of faggots, and towards the outside. The progress of the excavation was very soon stopped by the oozing in of the water; but a workman, plunging his arm up to the shoulder into the soft material, brought up handfuls of the fern layer, mingled with sticks and hazelnuts, and large bones, believed to be those of oxen. Near the spot lumps of sand and stone fused together were picked up. On the south side of the island extraordinary pains had been taken to secure the structure—heavy slabs of oak, 5 feet long, 2 feet wide, and 2 inches thick, were laid one upon another in a sloping direction, bolted together by stakes, inserted in mortices 8 inches by 10 inches in size, and connected by squared pieces of timber 3 feet 8 inches in length. It extended to the length of 23 yards, and its base, about 5 yards beyond the surface of the mud, was formed of stems of trees laid horizontally, and secured by stakes. In other respects the formation resembles that of the other islet, but it was far larger, measuring 100 yards round by about 36 yards across. No building of any sort was discovered, but a large plank of oak, 12 feet long, 14 inches broad, and 7 inches thick, lay covered with stones on the north side. The sinking of the mud had by this time laid bare a second canoe between the islet first examined and the shore; it was 18½ feet long, 2 feet 7 inches wide, and barely 2 inches deep; a block of wood, cut to fit a hole, left probably by a rotten branch, was inserted in the side, and had there been secured by pegs driven through the side; across the stern was cut a deep groove to admit a backboard. A hole, 2 inches in diameter, was bored at about one-third of the length of both canoes in the bottom. This was so rotten that it would not bear my weight without breaking. The next day, being unable to reach the last-mentioned island, I found upon the spot which had been indicated to me on my first inquiry, no less than six structures, similar to those before described, in a semi-circle. They were, however, much smaller, apparently single dwellings. Though upon some of them charred wood was found, nothing else was discovered except a morticed piece of timber, which might have drifted there; and in one, inserted under the upper layer of brushwood, a large oak timber, measuring 8 feet long by 3 feet in circumference. Throughout these investigations no tool or weapon of any sort has come to light. In the layers the leaves and nuts were perfectly fresh and distinct, and the bark was as plainly distinguishable on the stems and timber as on the day they were laid down, as were also the heather and the fern. It is difficult to conjecture the state of the loch when these edifices were formed, and whether or not they were completed at one period. The finding of the large stones in the lower layer of ferns might lead to the belief that they were gradually raised as the waters of the loch increased; and the necessity of strengthening them by breakwaters would seem to prove that the loch must have risen considerably before they were abandoned. No other sort of building has been discovered on them; but the great number of teeth scattered over the surface of the larger island, and even on the mud surrounding it, and the immense expenditure of labour indicated in the shaping and hewing of the large

timber with tools, which must have been, from the work produced, of the rudest description, betoken apparently a considerable population. The loch must have remained for a considerable period at each of the different levels before mentioned; at one time six or seven feet above its last level (that is, before its drainage was effected), to which it was reduced by three cuts made to feed neighbouring mills, one certainly of great antiquity. At three and a half feet below the ordinary level there are unmistakable appearances of a former beach, with which the top of the first mentioned islet almost exactly coincides. It is remarkable that, though there are many rocky eminences in the bed of the loch, none bear token of ever having been used for the erection of these dwellings, which seem to have invariably been based upon the soft bottom of the loch, where the intervening mud and water may have afforded the inhabitants a greater security from attacks from the shore. I had not time to examine fully the shores of the loch; but I was assured by Mr. Chalmers that he had examined them carefully, without finding traces of other structures. On a hill to the south there are remains of a Danish fort (i.e., a circular entrenchment), and the very ancient ruin called Long Castle is on an adjacent promontory on the north side. Sir William Maxwell suggests, as an explanation of the different levels found in the loch, that the waters originally discharged themselves into the sea from the western end of the valley, a portion of them only now finding an exit that way, in consequence of the formation of the moss towards the centre of the valley, which compelled the remainder to flow into the loch. In this case the structures must be supposed to be formed in the early stages of the growth of the moss, whilst the loch was so shallow as to make it easy to raise the moss above its waters, and yet deep enough to float canoes, and afford the desired security from an enemy.”

Professor Wilson, having referred to several prior discoveries of this nature, remarked that the opinion he had formed in relation to the discovery of bronze, and of metals generally, was that they belonged to a much earlier period than antiquarians had hitherto been disposed to assign to them. And he felt assured that, instead of the recent discoveries placed before the world by Sir Charles Lyell and others, destroying the grounds of the religious faith which many of them so earnestly held, they would be found to remove a great many difficulties which ethnologists hitherto had had to encounter. In the first instance they might appear to create difficulties; but, on the other hand, if ethnologists discovered that they had grounds for believing that they had a much longer period than 4000 years in which to account for the changes that had affected the varieties of the human family, a very serious difficulty would be avoided in reconciling those changes with the generally received chronology. If they were compelled to limit their speculations to 4000 or 5000 years, and to acknowledge at the same time that there were proofs of the existence of such races as the negro upon the ancient monuments of Egypt, they could not wonder at the ethnologist doubting whether the change from white to black, or other important changes, could take place in the two or three centuries which appeared to intervene between the deluge and the works of art in question.

Sir Charles Lyell said he thought it was perfectly clear, from the paper which had just been read, that there must have been several successive changes of level in the lake referred to; and he should have been glad to have heard from the author, and also from Professor Wilson, what, in their opinion, is its probable antiquity. The alteration in the levels would account for the changes spoken of by the author. Lord Lovaine had suggested that the changes of level had been brought about by the growth of peat impeding the ancient outlet of the lake. Now, if the archaeologist could determine a proximate date to the lowest of these dwellings, and to the ornaments that were found there, it would throw light on one of the most interesting questions in chronology. It would throw light on the rate of the growth of peat, one of the modes of measuring the chronology of what geologists considered very modern periods—modern, that is, in reference to the existence of man; for those lake dwellings, so far as we knew, all of them relate to a period when the form of Europe was just what it is now, or what it was when the Romans conquered Gaul. Contrasted, therefore, with the period of certain animals found in particular formations, these lake habitations were all modern affairs; and, if the bronze period could be carried back, as Professor Wilson had remarked, to ages far more remote



than had previously been thought, those lake dwellings, which exclusively belonged to the stone period, but which also strictly belonged to the period of the living groups, and were long posterior to the time of the extinct animals, must be proportionately ancient contrasted with historical times. He saw a letter the other day from an able Swiss writer, in which it was stated that not less than 160 lake dwellings had been found on the lakes of Switzerland. A large proportion of these lakes had been examined, and it was perfectly clear that some of them belonged to the stone period, without the slightest admixture of bronze. Not far from one of these stone period dwellings there might occur one in which there were, perhaps, 2000 instruments, all of bronze, with hardly a mixture of stone. This was a most important fact in connexion with the investigation of tumuli, inasmuch as it was said, with great propriety, that the stone may have been employed sometimes by those who could not afford anything better, while those who were more wealthy used weapons of bronze. It was also said that there must have been a gradual passage from one to the other. But, if in some of those lake dwellings—which were geologically recent—there were found some instruments of stone, and in others, at no great distance, instruments of metal, it was perfectly clear that there was no danger of confounding the two—that there was a long period during which the stone implements prevailed, and another in which bronze or metal prevailed, and that in some cases there appeared to be a gradual change in the art of making those instruments. If, therefore, the bronze period could be carried much further than the antiquaries generally supposed, how ancient must those villages be where there was nothing but instruments of stone. And yet both epochs belonged to a period in which there was not found one of those extinct animals of which geologists had found so many unequivocal remains. He might take that opportunity of saying that, however convinced he was that there had been a great number of frauds practised, especially in the valley of the Somme, owing to the great demand for specimens, yet he was also perfectly convinced that 99—certainly more than 90—out of every 100 which had been submitted to examination were genuine. His faith in the antiquity of the instruments referred to was not shaken by any of the impositions which had come to light. Referring again to the peat-growth question, he might remark that it appeared from an island in a lake in the county of Cavan, Ireland, that the lake had acquired additional depth in consequence of the growth of peat stopping the outlet. He could not help hoping, therefore, that we should by degrees get such a measure of the possible growth of peat under such situations as would serve, to a certain extent, to help us in speculating on the minimum of time which a growth of 30 feet of peat may have required. He still hoped that, upon examination, there would be found, not merely ornaments, but implements, and the remains of domestic and wild animals of the period. If the lakes of this island were searched with anything like the diligence which was shown in Switzerland, we should, doubtless, discover a great deal of most important information on the subject of these newly-discovered habitations.

*On the Varieties of Men in the Malay Archipelago.* By Mr. A. R. Wallace.—In the Malay Archipelago are found two very strongly-contrasted races—the Malays and the Papuans. The former inhabit the great Western Islands—Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and Celebes; the latter, New Guinea and the adjacent small islands. The typical Malays are of a light brown colour, resembling cinnamon or lightly-roasted coffee; they have constantly straight, black, and rather coarse hair, little or no beard, and generally smooth, hairless bodies; they are of a low stature, rather strongly made, with short, thick feet, and small, delicate hands. The face is broad; the eyebrows flat; the nose small, well formed, with the nostrils somewhat exposed; the lips broad and well cut; the mouth large, but not projecting. In character the Malay is impassive, reserved, and bashful. His feelings of surprise, admiration, or fear are not readily manifested, and he has little appreciation of the sublime or beautiful. He is somewhat taciturn, is deliberate when he speaks; he but seldom laughs, nor does he openly express his gratitude for a favour. He revenges an insult more quickly than an injury. He is honest and trustworthy in many matters, but prides himself upon his capacity of lying. His intellect is but mediocre; he is deficient in the energy necessary to acquire knowledge, and his mind seems incapable of following out any more than the simplest combinations. He is quick

in acquiring mechanical arts, and therefore makes a good servant for simple routine duties. The Papuan is, in many respects, the opposite of the Malay. In colour he is a deep sooty brown or black, his hair is very peculiar, being harsh, dry, and frizzly, growing in little tufts, which in youth are short and compact, but which in adults often grow out so as to form a compact frizzly mop, nearly a yard in diameter. He is bearded, and his arms, legs, and breast are more or less hairy. The Papuan is taller than the Malay, and, perhaps, equal to the average of Europeans; the face is elongate, and the hands and feet rather large; the forehead is flat, the brows very prominent, the nose large, long and arched, with the nostrils hidden by the overhanging top. The face has thus a Semitic character, which is perceptible even in the children. The moral characteristics of the Papuan separate him widely from the Malay. He is impulsive and demonstrative in speech and action. His emotions and passions are expressed in shouts and laughter, in yells and frantic leapings. He is noisy and boisterous in speech and action, both at home and before strangers. Of his intellect less is known; but it seems, at least, equal and probably superior to that of the Malay. He has a love of art, decorating his canoe, his house, and almost every domestic article with elaborate carving. It must be granted, therefore, that these two races are most strongly contrasted; and, if mankind can be classed at all in distinct varieties, the Malay and the Papuan must certainly be kept separate. Besides these well-marked races are the inhabitants of the intermediate islands of the Moluccas and Timor, which, though differing in some degree from both, may yet, in almost every case, be classed with one or the other of them. The Negritos of the Philippines and the Lemangs of Malacca differ in most important characters from the Papuan races with which they have hitherto been classed, and must be considered to have Asiatic rather than Polynesian affinities. The recent evidence of the antiquity of man, and his having survived geological changes and the extinction of many species of mammalia, introduces a new element into ethnographical researches, and enables us to speculate more freely on the application and origin of races. Mr. Darwin's researches on the structure and origin of the coral reefs of the Pacific render it highly probable that great islands, or even continents, have recently sunk beneath its waters. The present distribution of animals in the Pacific islands leads us to conclude that this subsidence is geologically recent. The inhabitants of all the Pacific islands, as far west as New Guinea and Australia, have much in common, while they differ greatly from other races. Combining these facts, and boldly following their indications, we may divide the Malay Archipelago by a virtual waving line through the Moluccas, so that all the tribes to the west of the line will be Malayan and of Asiatic origin, and all to the east Papuan or of Polynesian origin. This division is in harmony with that which has been shown to exist in the animal productions of the same regions, and obviates the difficulties attending every theory hitherto proposed as to the affinities and derivation of the Malayan and Polynesian races.

Mr. Jukes said he could quite confirm Mr. Wallace's statements as to the distinction between the Malay and the Papuan races. He differed from him, however, in identifying the frizzled hair of the latter with that of the negro. The author had arrived at conclusions with reference to the antiquity of man which he had ventured to draw some twenty years ago. It had been for twenty years impressed upon his mind that the great depression of land in Oceania was one of the chief causes operating for the distribution of race. If there had been a large continent in that part of the world inhabited by man, which continent has sunk and disappeared, and the tombs of which now exist in the coral islands, then the antiquity of the inhabitants of those islands would have to be dated from very far back indeed. In private discussions among his friends twenty years ago he never attributed to the human race an existence of less than a hundred thousand years. He had no data for arriving at that opinion, but the impression had been produced on his mind, and he still entertained the same conviction. A hundred thousand years was, after all, a small period to allow for the depression of a vast continent and the springing of a number of coral islands out of the bed of the ocean.

Dr. Hunt said that the paper which had just been read was one of the most important that had been submitted to the notice of the British Association. In the last portion of it the author very properly stated that the modern discovery of the

vast antiquity of man had opened up fresh ground, and had, in fact, put the whole science of man in a new light. Some four years ago he had the honour of reading a paper before the Association on the harmony of the evidence in support of the antiquity of man, and on that occasion he spoke of the inadequacy of any of the views which had then been publicly put forward. The fact was, that when we talked of the existence of the human race, we got out of our depth, and there were no data on which to build our conclusions. When he read the paper to which he alluded before the Association he quoted a remark from a German work which produced a smile, and which would probably have a similar effect now. The remark was to the effect that man had existed for not less than 35,000 years, and that there was every reason to believe that he had existed for nine millions of years. With reference to the question of race, the author of the paper very properly attached great importance to the principles of art which were found in different races. He entirely agreed with him. He would ask the author, however, whether he thought that similarity of language was a test of affinity, and whether, in the absence of civilization, he did not admit that in certain races there was an inability to accept civilization? Mr. Wallace ascribed the changes that had taken place in the races of Europe and America to physical and moral causes. He would ask whether there was not a mental influence also at work in producing those changes?

Mr. Wallace said that the questions which Dr. Hunt had put to him were exceedingly difficult ones. With regard to language, he thought it was inferior as a test of race to physical and moral characters; but it was a very good test of close affinities of races which had been recently separated. It did not appear to him that it could be said of any race of men that it was unable to accept civilization. The inhabitants of Great Britain were once savages, and the Romans might have said of them that they were incapable of receiving civilization with as much justice as we could say so of the negro. Assuming the correctness of the hypothesis of the remote antiquity of man, it might be argued that, if one people—the Britons—could exist 50,000 years uncivilized, why could not another race exist 52,000 years without losing their capacity for improvement? With regard to the influence of mind on the changes of race, there were, no doubt, many varied causes to be taken into account, and he was not prepared to say that any particular influence had not been at work.

Sir J. Richardson said that the very first problem in reference to the antiquity of man had not yet been solved. As yet we could not venture to state what was the precise age of a bank of peat-moss. The paper which had been read seemed to him to strengthen the theory of the unity of the human race. If ethnologists had only time to work out the changes in the human family some very serious difficulties would be removed.

*On the Human Cranium found at Amiens.* By Mr. H. Duckworth. *On the Anatomical Character of the same.* By Mr. W. Turner.—Mr. R. A. Godwin Austen remarked on these papers that, in his opinion, the discoveries at Amiens had no bearing on the antiquity of man, as the whole of the locality had been a burying-place for an enormous period of time. He had visited the locality where the skeleton was discovered from which the famous jawbone, which had attracted so much attention, was taken; and he believed that the deposit there was nothing but an accumulation of drift from the chalk hills which overhung that particular spot.

*The Origin of Gypsies.* By Mr. J. Crawford. *On the Opening of a Kist of the Stone Age upon the Coast of Elgin.* By Mr. George E. Roberts.—

"In the last number of the *Natural History Review* (No. 11, July, 1863), Mr. Lubbock describes the ancient shell-mounds which have lately been discovered by the Rev. Dr. Gordon of Birnie upon the shores of the Moray Firth and the sea-board of Elginshire. Their affinity in general character to the kōkken-mōddens of Denmark is shown in that paper, though they differ in the nature and relative proportions of their contents. From the discovery of fragments of bronze ornaments in two of the shell-middens, it has been conjectured that the date of the accumulation of these is comparatively a modern one. In another midden, immediately adjoining, flint spear and arrow-heads, and a bone-scraper of flint—all of which are of the oldest types (save those of the Somme Valley and the Valley of the Ouse)—have been discovered by the Rev. Dr. Gordon. No fragment of pottery rewarded the search of Mr. Lubbock; and, although Dr. Taylor of Elgin



24 OCTOBER, 1863.

## ART.

## THE LATE MR. SHEEPSHANKS.

obtained two small pieces, and Dr. Gordon picked up another during the visit paid with me, they show little or no character, are very coarsely burnt, and of the rudest manufacture. In company with my friends the Rev. Dr. Gordon and Mr. Harvey Gem, I have lately visited two of these mounds, situated upon the sandy dunes at Bannat Hill, a mile from Burghhead; and, after examining their contents, we turned our attention to the small cairns of rudely-piled stones, which lie a few yards (inland) from one of the shell-middens, and which evidently mark the burial-places of the tribe. Two of these were piled around small inclosed spaces formed by the junction of four upright stones. A fragment of human jaw lying in the sand outside one of these led us to search among its sandy contents for other bones, but unsuccessfully. The second cairn, however, with its central kist, yielded us better evidence. This, like the neighbouring tomb, was a rude erection of four flat sandstone slabs, placed vertically so as to enclose a space 30 inches long by 20 in width. The depth of the stones, which nearly corresponded with that of the grave, was 22 inches. Three of the stones had been slightly smoothed before use. The cavity thus formed was filled with sand, into which we dug, and presently succeeded in discovering a skeleton, which had apparently been buried in a crouching position, the legs below the knee being bent beneath the hams, and the head bowed towards the knees. The skull was strongly brachycephalic, and presents other peculiarities which Mr. Busk has been good enough to describe in the valuable note attached to this paper. From the position of the skeleton I was at first inclined to consider that no disturbance of it had taken place; but the absence of some of the vertebrae and a few of the smaller bones renders this somewhat uncertain. Dr. Davis of Stafford, who has written upon the skulls of the "ancient Britons," opened a similar kist at Roseisle, about a mile to the S.E. of the Bannat Hill, many years ago, and obtained from it a human cranium and leg-bones, probably referable to the age of our skeleton."—Note upon the Skeleton, by Professor Busk, F.R.S.:—"The human bones found at Bannat Hill have belonged apparently to a young individual, about 5 ft. 8 or 9 in. in height, of slight make, and no great muscular development. At first sight, from the comparative delicacy of form, and want of muscular impressions, one would be inclined to regard them as those of a woman; but, if so, she must have been of more than the usual stature. Unfortunately, no part of the pelvis, which would enable a correct judgment as to this point to be formed, is found among the remains. If the owner were a man, he must have been of small size, and, as I have said, not of a strong build, and with a remarkably small head for a male. The cranium is decidedly brachycephalic, the proportions of length to breadth being as 1.00 to .823, and, for his size, rather unusually high, the proportion of that dimension being to the length as .808 to 1.00. The forehead is narrow, and the superorbital ridges were slightly projecting, although the frontal sinuses are well developed. Compared with other ancient crania, the present may be regarded, I think, as belonging to the same class as those which have been considered as appertaining to the Stone period of the north of Europe. Amongst these I have selected a few whose dimensions approach nearest to the Bannat Hill skull, and these will perhaps suffice to show how far they all approximate to one type. I have also added the length, and least diameter of the long bones; beyond this they call for no particular remarks. As regards the chemical condition of the bones, it seems to me in some degree remarkable that they should have retained so much as 35.5 per cent. of animal matter. The amount of carbonates is about the same as in recent bone, or perhaps rather more—viz., 10.00—and the bones appear to contain about the usual amount of fluorine found in recent bone. They are slightly impregnated with iron." (Cranial measurements of the skull, compared with two from a Danish "midden" of the stone age, were attached to this note, and also measurements of the larger bones.)

*Antiquities of the Orkneys.* By Mr. G. Petrie.

*Notice of the Discovery of three additional Runic Inscriptions in St. Molio's Cave, Holy Island, Argyllshire.* By Professor Daniel Wilson.

*On Ethnographical Casts.* By Hermann de Schlagintweit.

*On Proposed Overland and River Routes between British India and Western China.* By Captain Henderson.

Time would not permit of the reading of these papers.

THE death of Mr. Sheepshanks, whose splendid gift to the nation powerfully helped to arouse it to a perception of the strange insensibility to the claims of art which has characterized every English government from the time of Charles I., has inevitably called forth a few lines of respectful comment in the art column of every newspaper. But, while we have met with a witness everywhere to the many noble qualities of the man to whom we are all so much indebted, we can gather very little more about him from the art gossip of the journals than that he was the brother of the astronomer and the friend of artists, and that his gift to the nation represents a money-value of sixty thousand pounds. Nowhere do we obtain a glimpse of what appears to us to be the true significance of this princely gift, though it is not creditable to us as a civilized people—namely, that during the half century in which Mr. Sheepshanks was engaged in forming this collection, he found no competitor in the English government, but was contemptuously left with other men of easy fortune and cultivated leisure to patronize and develop English art, and to the performance of those plain duties which had long been recognised by the governments of Continental Europe, as part of the necessary business of every wise administration. The collection at South Kensington represents the tastes and necessities of those to whom the direction and patronage of English art has been almost entirely left. The subjects are nearly all of domestic, frequently of trifling interest, such as can always and everywhere be understood and appreciated, and the size of the pictures is usually well adapted to the rooms of an ordinary English house. The collection of modern French pictures, formed during the same half century by the French government, and deposited in the Luxembourg, does not illustrate the taste and convenience of a class, but is the measure of progress made by the art genius of France, under a wise and truly national encouragement. While cabinet pictures of the stamp of those in the Vernon and Sheepshanks collections are never denied recognition, and may be found in the French gallery beside the works of Ingres, of Vernet, and of Delaroche, it has been comprehended that these latter could not have been produced under a system of private patronage. The mere size in some instances, the abstract nature of the subjects treated in others, would have kept them out of private collections; and, but for government recognition, they would never have been produced at all. A wise government should not delegate the exclusive care of art to ever so wealthy and cultivated a class. Its duty is to keep up the highest possible standard, either by the employment of artists on public works, or by the occasional judicious purchase of pictures held to be worthy of a place in the national collections. Such has ever been the practice of the French government, and of every government under which the arts have attained to great pre-eminence. Even our own government has at length reached to a perception of the wisdom of a limited expenditure by the state for the encouragement of art; and the reign of her present Majesty has been distinguished, owing mainly to the wise influence of the late Prince Consort, by the inauguration of fresco-painting, and the recognition of a nobler purpose in art than that of ministering to the amusement or exciting the wonder of collectors and connoisseurs. The days are happily past when an English government could throw over (as in the case of the Dulwich collection), a munificent bequest as unworthy of the expenditure which must have been incurred in providing a building to contain it. Much, however, remains to be done before English art shall occupy that place in the estimation of Europe which we fully believe it is destined to fill. In the meanwhile the formation of a National Gallery of British Art has been initiated by Messrs. Vernon, Sheepshanks, and Bell; and, although no additions have as yet been made by the government from the works of living painters, a more enlightened public opinion will assuredly call for the enlargement of the collection by the purchase of such pictures and sculptures from time to time as shall be considered fair examples of the progress of English art.

The deed of gift by which Mr. Sheepshanks conveyed his pictures to the nation is very short and simple. In a short preamble the collection is made over to Lord Stanley of Alderley, for the time being charged with the promotion of art education, to be held by him and by his successors in office, in trust for the nation—the same to be

attached to the art schools in connexion with the Department of Science and Art at South Kensington. The hope is then expressed that other proprietors of pictures may be induced to increase the collection by additional contributions, the present benefactor having no wish that it should be called by his name.

Nine conditions are then specified, to be held as binding on the acceptance of the gift.

By the 1st, Lord Stanley of Alderley shall accept the trusteeship on the conditions specified.

2nd. A well-lighted and suitable gallery is to be provided by the government, to be called the National Gallery of British Art, and to be built on the South Kensington Estate acquired in 1851.

3rd. The collection may be deposited in a gallery containing works of art, the gifts of other contributors, the donor not wishing it to be specially called by his name.

4th. The *ex-officio* trustee for the time being shall have the sole right of property in the collection, and shall be the sole arbiter of any question that may arise touching the management or disposition thereof.

5th. The said pictures and drawings shall be used, as the primary object, for reference and instruction in the schools of art now placed under the superintendence of the said department. They shall be exhibited to the public at such times as shall not interfere with the arrangements of the said schools, and under such arrangements as the *ex-officio* trustee shall prescribe; and, so soon as arrangements shall have been made by him for that purpose, the public, and especially the working classes, shall have the advantage of seeing the collection on Sunday afternoons, it being understood that the exhibition on Sundays is not to be considered as one of the conditions of gift.

6th. None of the said pictures and drawings shall ever be sold or exchanged, but may be temporarily loaned to any place in the United Kingdom where any school of art exists in connexion with the schools of science and art under the superintendence of the said department.

7th. The *ex-officio* trustee shall be advised on matters connected with the preservation of the said pictures and drawings by W. Mulready, Esq., R.A., and R. Redgrave, Esq., R.A., or other member of the Royal Academy for the time being as professional adviser.

8th. In this clause the existing copyright of the pictures is preserved to their authors.

9th. This collection is not to be subject to the provisions of the Act 19th and 20th Victoria, cap. 29, intituled "An Act to extend the powers of trustees and directors of the National Gallery and to authorize the sale of works of art belonging to the public, or to any further act of the Legislature which shall have the effect of placing these pictures and drawings under other care than that herein prescribed." In such case the collection shall lapse to the Fitzwilliam Museum at Cambridge.

The document is signed by John Sheepshanks, Esq., and is witnessed by the Hon. Wm. Cowper, Richard Redgrave, Esq., and Henry Cole, Esq. The signature of Lord Stanley of Alderley appears at the foot as accepting the trusteeship of the property on the prescribed conditions. The collection has been public property for upwards of six years, having been made over to the nation in the spring of 1857; but the pictures have been only publicly exhibited since the completion of the gallery at South Kensington, built to contain them in accordance with the second clause of the deed of gift.

Of the pictures contained in this collection it is scarcely necessary to speak. Mr. Sheepshanks sought to bring together especially the works of Landseer, Leslie, and Mulready; and perhaps the very choicest specimens of these painters are to be found assembled here in company. We should be disposed to set the highest value on the Leslies. Leslie was a thoroughly English and original painter. Falling far short of the range of Hogarth, and entirely without his power of portraying the active, busy, fierce, vicious, human life about us, he had a subtle perception of character, and the power of reproducing on his canvas the delicate shades of expression, and especially the innocence and purity of female expression, hardly to be found in the works of any other English painter. Mr. Sheepshanks collected some of the best examples of Leslie's ability; and from this collection especially we may gather the truest flavour of his genius.

Mulready, however, was his friend and constant adviser; and from him we have the only traces of the likeness of our benefactor. The small picture of Mr. Sheepshanks in his study was painted by Mulready when his friend occupied the house



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in Bond Street, now tenanted by Mr. Dinneford the chemist, and long before the greater part of this collection existed. The housekeeper, a young woman at this time is still alive, and always protests that she was better dressed and better shod than she is made to appear in the picture. The smaller portrait of Mr. Sheepshanks was probably a study for this picture. Both are profiles; and the lineaments are those of a sagacious, just, and benevolent man. That such was his character appears to us to be plainly indicated in the conditions annexed to his gift. Primarily he determined that the use of the collection should be for the instruction and advantage of students; but he did not forget that the tendency of art is to humanize the mind; and, while his benevolence caused him to assert the claims of the working classes to view his collection on Sunday afternoons, he was too wise to insult a powerful opposing sentiment by making such a stipulation in their favour a special condition of his gift.

But, above all, his desire was to found a National Gallery of British Art, apart from any acknowledgment of honour for himself. As a school in the first place, as a source of pride and delight to the public in the second—so has he wisely, as well as generously, given to us his collection. It is for us now to carry on the good work, and, through the government, afford encouragement to a higher art than has yet been brought forth in England under the system of private patronage. The small imperial expenditure would never be grudged by the nation that should enable us to place by the side of the exquisite *genre* painting we already possess works of as high an order as the "Andromeda" of Ingres, the "Calvary" of Delaroche, or the "Egmont and Horn" of Gallait.

## ART NOTES.

MR. THEED'S marble statue of the late Prince Consort has been placed in the principal corridor at Balmoral. It represents the Prince in the Highland dress, with rifle in the left hand, the right resting upon a favourite hound. The inscription, selected by her Majesty, runs thus:—

ALBERT,  
PRINCE CONSORT.  
1861.  
HIS LIFE  
SPRANG FROM A DEEP INNER SYMPATHY  
WITH GOD'S WILL;  
AND THEREFORE  
WITH ALL THAT IS TRUE,  
AND BEAUTIFUL,  
AND RIGHT.

THE restoration of the north-west tower of Canterbury Cathedral is fast approaching completion. It is proposed to restore the figures in the niches at the base of the towers which were destroyed after the Reformation. This restoration will be under the special superintendence of the dean. The central, or Bell Harry tower—one of the most beautiful and graceful in England—is reported quite safe. The works are under the direction of Mr. Austin, the cathedral surveyor.

A STAINED-GLASS window for the parish church of Bradford, Yorkshire, has been completed by Messrs. Morris, Marshall, Faulkner, & Co., of No. 8, Red Lion Square. It is a seven-light perpendicular window, with the usual tracery, and divided by a transom. In the centre light above the transom is a "Majesty"—the Saviour in glory, with attendant angels. Below the transom comes a large figure of St. Peter. The other six lights are arranged in four rows, making a total of twenty-four single figures, in the following order, beginning from the upper left-hand corner:—First row: St. Elizabeth, with her son the youthful Baptist; Anna the Prophetess; the Virgin Mary; Mary Magdalene; Martha; Mary, the sister of Lazarus. Second row: St. John the Baptist; the Four Evangelists; St. Paul. Third row: Abraham preparing to sacrifice his son; Isaac; Jacob; David; Solomon; Joseph, the husband of the Virgin Mary. Fourth row: Moses; the Four Major Prophets; Elijah. We have thus—to reverse the order of our statement—firstly, the Jewish lawgiver, and other prophets of the Old Dispensation; secondly, an abstract of the lineage of Jesus; thirdly, the forerunner and the great Apostles of Christianity; and, lastly, the female saints most immediately connected with the Saviour. These surround the "Majesty,"

and the figure of Peter, the saint to whom the church is dedicated. The tracery, moreover, represents, in its larger openings, the Four Archangels, Angels, Cherubim, and Seraphim. Artists, and such connoisseurs as have reached the standpoint whence they can look upon fine art as fine art, whatever its form, apart from the mere technical conventions of its practice, may be expected to know by this time that there is a great difference between the intrinsic deserts of the stained glass turned out by Messrs. Morris, Marshall, Faulkner, & Co., and that of other competing firms, be they which they may. The reason is not far to seek. The firm in Red Lion Square has among its members artists of real distinction—men exercised in painting important subjects by the ordinary pictorial processes, and who will not fail to apply to their subjects for stained glass just the same powers of design, composition, expression, or colour as they apply to their other work; the same powers, modified, of course, according to the process in hand; but neither suppressed nor transmitted. The process itself also is carried out with a definite understanding of its artistic, not its merely methodic, needs and opportunities. Thus, in such a work as the window under our notice, we find inventive design, able composition, individual and even peculiar character in the personages, and a system of colour which is neither learned by rote from existing examples, nor pushed to any such extreme of glare and glister as would be intolerable in a picture. The artists give us the design of a painter curtailed and simplified, and the colour of a painter simplified and also intensified. The tones are mainly of great depth and solidity; the greens tending to the strong tint of late leafage rather than to emerald or grass tint; the blues less azure or cobalt than indigo; full-bodied blood-reds and tawny oranges. To these due relief and proportion is given by quiet equable flesh-tints in fair quantity, and by an ample sufficiency of intermixed white glass. The effect of the whole, it will be understood, does not by any means incline to the neutral or the sombre, but to fulness and force in the key which distinguishes a colourist from a colour-monger. It would be of little use to dwell upon the specialities of particular figures; we shall limit ourselves to mentioning the Elizabeth with the Baptist, the Abraham with Isaac, and the Martha as very characteristic and successful examples of the style of design and of general treatment which prevails throughout. For colour and executive attainment, combined with artistic invention, this glass may probably be deemed the most accomplished exemplification of the views of the firm which they have as yet produced. Bradford may accept its window with confidence and satisfaction.

THE National Portrait Gallery will be closed for repairs and alterations during the month of November.

MR. JOHN CLARK, called "Waterloo Clark" from his "Scenes from the Battle of Waterloo," sketched by him on the field itself immediately after the battle, died a few days ago at Edinburgh in his ninety-second year.

"GOETHE'S Portrait, after the Original taken in 1811 at Weimar, by Miss Louise Seidler, lithographed by P. Rohrbach," will be issued in a few days by Schroeder, in Berlin.

A COMMITTEE has been formed at Luino, in Lombardy, for the purpose of erecting a grand monument to Garibaldi. It is to consist of a colossal statue to the great hero, and the names of the communities and civic bodies contributing above 100 fr. are to be engraved upon the socket.

THE contributions to the Kepler monument at Weil flow in so copiously that the committee have decided upon altering the original plan, in so far that not only a statue, but a whole group shall be erected. With Kepler there would then be represented—his princely protector, the Emperor Rudolphus II., his teacher Mästlin, and his contemporaries Copernicus, Galileo Galilei, and Tycho de Brahe.

THE Frankfort Senate has ordered a medal to be struck in memory of the late meeting of German Princes. The obverse shows the Frankfort eagle, and the reverse a view of the Römerplatz, with the inscription, "In Memory of the German Fürstentag, 1863." It will be executed by the sculptor Aug. von Nordheim.

THE Musée Napoléon III. has been thrown open to the public. It occupies the nine large rooms in the Louvre formerly occupied by the paintings of the French school, and which follow each other to the east of the square saloon. It is here

that the Phœnician antiquities, acquired during M. Renan's mission in Phœnicia and Asia Minor, have found their place. A selection from the Duc de Lhuyne's collection, paintings from Pompeii, and a portion of the Ceramics in the Campana Museum have also been placed there. The first room is occupied by antiquities from Rhodes, Cyprus, and Judæa. One of the glass cases contains an antique vase from Judæa, some fragments of Moabite pottery—which somewhat resembles the pottery introduced by the Arabs into Europe—and also some fragments from Gaza, the city known in connexion with Samson's astounding feat. The second room shows the first beginnings of western pottery. Pitchers of an Asiatic form, with a bas-relief representing hunting-scenes, public games, and the like, are ranged round the shelves of this division. These pitchers, intended to hold honey, wine, and oil, were found in the burial-ground of Agyllæ. Vases painted in the primitive style, dating from the infancy of Art, follow in the next room. Next come vases in the shape of human busts, fishes, ovens, &c., of Clusian workmanship. Funeral monuments occupy the adjoining room. In the middle is found a large sarcophagus in baked clay, called the Lydian tomb. In the glass cases ranged round the rooms are funeral urns for holding the ashes of the dead, sepulchral lamps, and bas-reliefs from the tombs. Many of these urns represent the deceased recumbent on his death-bed. One of these sepulchral tables represents a dog and some geese picking up the crumbs under the table. In the fifth room are exhibited the earthenware found at Cœri, an Etruscan town, where the Bacchidæ, expelled from Corinth, established themselves 655 B.C. The art had then made great progress—the designs were more artistic, the patterns more correct, and the materials finer. During the Augustan period these vases fetched at Rome their price in gold. Some of the legs represented on them are in boots not inferior in elegance to those worn in our time. The period of the decadence in Greece follows. The vases in the next room are inferior in every respect—material, pattern, finish, and all. Metal began to reign supreme, and the art of pottery was neglected. In the eighth room are found a collection of red earthenware and others, varnished with various colours, together with painted dishes. The greater number of the paintings represent, as usual, games and mythological subjects: Theseus and the Minotaur, the Centaur, Nessus, Hercules and Dejanira, Hebe and Jupiter, &c. Besides these there are a great variety of cups and drinking-vessels exhibited in the middle of the room, together with fishes, human heads, more or less grotesque, heads of stags and wild boars, &c. The ninth room contains a collection of transparent and opaque glasses, mosaics, and frescoes, which served to decorate the houses at Pompeii. All these paintings are extremely fresh and rich in colours. One of these paintings represents a party sitting in a garden, and looks as if it had been painted yesterday.

COUNT KUSCHELEFF-BEDBORODKO, the brother-in-law of the medium Home, has made by will a handsome present to the Petersburg Academy of Arts—viz., his whole picture-gallery, one of the richest in the whole Russian empire—with the condition that it should be open daily and gratuitously to everybody, without distinction of rank or dress. This means that it shall not be closed against the poor populace, who still wear the Russian national costume, and have not adopted the French habiliments of the higher classes of Russia. The gallery itself consists, besides twelve sculptures—partly antiquities, partly by the hands of Canova, Livi, Dupré, &c.—of about 500 pictures of old and recent date. Of more ancient masters there are Rubens, L. Cranach, Jordaens, Fr. Mieris, Netscher, Metsu, Terburgh, Ostade, Wouvermann, and others. Besides these, there are paintings by L. Robert, Gudin, H. Vernet, Décamps, Ary Scheffer, ("Faust," among others), Alfred de Dreux, Delaroche, (copy of "Cromwell at the Coffin of Charles I.," made by himself), Couture, Meissonnier, Gérôme ("Duel after the Masquerade"), Gallait, Diday, Calame, Verboeckhoven, Leys; and, of Germans, the two Achenbachs, Meyerheim, Kraus, Knaus, &c.

THE following record has been solemnly deposited underneath the key-stone of the transept of the now finished dome of Cologne on the 15th of this month:—"Cologne possesses in its dome the most venerable document of its past, and the guarantee of a happy future. On the soil of Roman antiquity, to which Colonia Agrippina owes her origin—on the spot where the principal church, finished in 833 under Ludwig the Pious, and consumed by fire a few centuries afterwards, stood once—this



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divine temple, dedicated to the Apostle St. Peter, was founded in a solemn hour by Archbishop Conrad von Hochstedten on the 14th of August, 1248, in the presence of the newly-elected anti-emperor to Frederic the Second, the Hohenstaufen and William of Holland; and thus was carried out the idea of Archbishop St. Engelbert († 1228) whose remains rest in this dome, executed according to his wishes by Master Gerhard, and grown up until the tenth century—slowly, but mightily. The choir, completed in 1322, and inaugurated by Archbishop Henry of Virneburg, now so thoughtfully adorned and raised to the height of 200 feet, is surrounded by sacred relics and noble monuments of antiquity, either preserved in the treasuries or in the many chapels. Behind the high altar lie the remains of the Holy Three Kings, presented by Frederic Barbarossa to Archbishop Reginald of Dassel in 1162, in a precious case, adorned with jewels. To the left shines the celebrated dome-painting, masterly finished, a work of the year 1410, and worthy of its painter Stephen. All around are found tombs of many archbishops who deserved well of the church and the town. Here rests the founder of the dome, Conrad von Hochstedten († 1261); there the architect of Cologne's walls, towers, and gates, Philipp von Heinsburg († 1191); and near them the heart of Maria of Medici has found its last asylum. When, after the last two centuries, the building, the furtherance of which had been neglected by the unfavourable circumstances of the time, seemed doomed to utter ruin, a new mental life was awakened in the Rhenish lands. Frederic William III. in 1824 began, favoured by the circumstance investigations of Boissieré, the restoration of the dome, and seventeen years later, through the magnanimous resolution of Frederic William IV., and with the enthusiastic participation of all Germany, the continuation and inner completion of the great work, after Zwirner's plan, and under his guidance, took place. As early as the 4th of September, 1842, the foundation-stone of the south portal could be laid; and on the 14th of August, 1848, the nave could be inaugurated by the Archbishop of Cologne, Cardinal Johannes von Geissel. Soon the gorgeous splendour of the window-paintings, voted by the generous hands of King Ludwig of Bavaria, could vie with the grave simplicity of those executed in the year 1508. Since then, nearly the whole dome, in its original cross-form, borne aloft by more than a hundred pillars, with its nave and aisles, with the crowning of the roof in its entire length of 500 and width of 200 feet, has been completed—all except the towers, which will one day overtop most European buildings; and Dombauhütte and the Dombau Associations are at work, as it befits the fame of the old German Reichsstadt, in thought and in deed. The high protector and benefactor of the dome, and the skilful master of its new structure—they both rest in their graves; but, under the hereditary powerful protection of the kings of Prussia, the mighty work continues valiantly to the honour of God, and to the everlasting glory of the whole Fatherland. To the eternal memory of the completion of the nave of the dome of Cologne, and amid the hearty wishes for the happy and uninterrupted continuation of the building until the completion of the great western towers to a height of 500 feet, this document has already been signed by his Majesty King William I., on the 13th of October, 1863, during his presence at the dome at Cologne, and was completed and deposited in the key-stone of the transept on the 15th of the same month, on the birthday of the royal protector of the dome, now resting in God, King Frederic William IV."

THE second and third "Lieferung" of Joseph von Führich's series of sacred illustrations, "Der Belehemitische Weg," woodcuts by A. Gaber, have been issued. They contain:—1. "Jesus at the Breast of his Mother;" 2. "Jesus's Appearing;" 3. "Jesus's Sacrifice;" 4. "Jesus Praying;" 5. "Jesus's Circumcision;" 6. "Jesus Walking;" 7. "Jesus Sleeping;" 8. "Jesus a Fisherman."

## MUSIC.

### MUSICAL NOTES.

THE English Opera Company at Covent Garden has been playing "The Desert Flower" all the week. Touching English opera generally the rumours are many. Performances have been announced to take place at Her Majesty's Theatre after the termination of M. Jullien's Promenading Season. Then there is talk—but only talk—of a

pending coalition between three magnates of the musical realm—Mr. Mellon, Mr. Sims Reeves, and Mr. Santley—for the establishment of an opera at Covent Garden after Christmas. Lastly, there is the "E. O. Company, Limited," which seems to be in difficulties as to when and where to begin with its long-deferred project.

MR. and MRS. GERMAN REED announce their intended opening of an Opera di Camera, recommending it at some length as an entertainment new to Londoners and capable of being made very attractive. Some recent "entertainments" have been in effect chamber-operas or operettas; but Mr. and Mrs. German Reed's experiment will to most be as good as a novelty. They begin on November 2nd, at the Gallery of Illustration, with a piece written expressly by Mr. G. A. Macfarren, called "Jessie Lea."

MR. COSTA's new oratorio, to be brought out at the coming Birmingham Festival, is on the subject of Naaman. Mr. Bartholomew is the author of the book.

MISS PAREPA has finished her engagement at the Berlin Opera by a performance in the "Zauberflöte." She has since sung at the first Gewandhaus concert of the season at Leipzig.

GOOD organ playing, accessible daily or weekly at cheap prices, such as the inhabitants of Leeds, Birmingham, Liverpool, and Belfast have at their command, would be a boon to London people. The object is to be accomplished, it is said, by the erection of a large organ in the Agricultural Hall, Islington.

"MUSICAL TELEGRAPHY" is one of the oddest projects of the day. The device of connecting a pianoforte by means of electric wires with another instrument at a distance, which other being played sets its fellow in a state of audible sympathetic vibration, is made the basis of a regular scheme, promulgated in an American paper by Mr. Hachenberg, who announces that he will thus be prepared to lay on music to any desired number of houses. A distinguished artist is to play at a central instrument in electrical connexion with the rest, and every subscriber will thereupon have the option, by means of a little private tap, of turning on the stream of harmony into his own drawing-rooms. The thing is, no doubt, perfectly feasible, though, of course, it would be useless when done. It depends simply on the production of electrical vibrations at a velocity equal to those of musical notes. Vibrations, for example, ranging from 50 to 1000 per second would give a range of between four and five octaves.

THE Italian Opera of Paris has been opened on the 14th last. M. Bergier, the new manager, did all that could be done to make it a brilliant success. Mdle. de la Grange and Signor della Sedie had the honours of the evening. The number of subscribers is much larger than last year.

On the 13th inst. the remains of Beethoven and Schubert were, at the instance of the direction of the Vienna Musikverein, disinterred in the Währinger cemetery at Vienna, and provisionally transferred to the Friedhof-Capelle, until the permission for finally burying them in the Votivkirche, now in the course of construction (which is intended to become a kind of Pantheon), should be obtained. Many eminent musicians and other persons of quality were present at the opening of the coffins—Schubert's only remaining relative, his brother Andreas, among them. The mortal remains of Beethoven were found complete, except the two temple-bones, which, during the dissection made by Dr. Wagner on the 27th of March, 1827, at which the skull was divided into several parts, may have got lost. The skull of Schubert, together with the hair, was found completely preserved, while several ribs and fragments of bones were lost unaccountably. Both corpses were in metal coffins. The remains found have been photographed, and the coffins sealed again. The skulls, of which casts are to be taken, will probably be placed in the archives of the Society of Musicians.

A WENDIC Singing-Festival took place a week or so ago at Bautzen. There were performed, among other pieces, the Hussites' song of the fifteenth century, a Bohemian, a Russian, a Polish, and Nether-Lusatian melody; besides a song in commemoration of the battle of Bautzen, which took place fifty years ago. The Wendic "Song of the People" was executed "from its most simple form to its dramatic completion."

OFFENBACH, the composer of "Orpheus," &c., the other day but narrowly escaped a violent death. In driving from Etretat, near Havre, to

Bengeville, the pole of the carriage suddenly broke, and he was thrown, head foremost, out of the vehicle. Luckily his hat only received a fatal injury.

## MUSIC FOR NEXT WEEK.

OCTOBER 26th to 31st.

OPERAS:—

COVENT GARDEN (English).—Monday and succeeding nights, "The Desert Flower."

HER MAJESTY'S (Italian).—Monday, "Norma;" Tuesday, "Faust."

## THE DRAMA.

### THE LONDON THEATRES.

DURING the present week the London theatres have presented no feature of novelty; the more successful pieces are enjoying each its "run," and the less successful are kept in the bills until they can be displaced by other pieces. At the head of the successes Mr. Tom Taylor's strongly-written and admirably-acted "Ticket-of-Leave Man" holds its place, though it has now been played some hundred and twenty-five nights. The performance of Miss Bateman, after being twice honoured with the presence of the Prince and Princess of Wales, attracts large audiences of mixed Christians, Jews, and Americans, who shudder at the terrible "malediction" in the fourth act of "Leah," and weep tears of delightful sympathy in the fifth act, when the wronged and vengeful Jewess gives up the purpose of her revenge, and dies forgiving, and even blessing, the man who has destroyed her. "Manfred" draws large audiences to Drury Lane, and the piece has gained in smoothness and impressiveness of action since its first production. At the little Dean Street theatre, Mr. F. C. Burnand's "Ixion" is carrying all before it. This piece, too, has gained considerably in smoothness and effectiveness, and is in every way worthy of its great success; there is not a little true wit in its dialogue, its parodies are abundant, humorous, and capitably well sung, and its dances are extremely fresh and piquant. That the pill-box of a theatre overflows every night is not at all surprising, all this taken into account "Miriam's Crime" appears to be well liked by the public, as we think it ought to be, in spite of objections to which it might lead itself with timid moralists. The author in no sense confounds right with wrong; he merely paints a particular and exceptional case of morals, and he produces a picture, drawn with many strong touches of nature, and, as we think, not in the least likely to harm anybody. The "Rivals" at the Haymarket has been repeated this week for the purpose of exhibiting Miss Snowdon's performance of *Mrs. Malaprop*, which somewhat improves on acquaintance, though it is not likely, at the best, to be entirely acceptable before some of the youthful grace which belongs to Miss Snowdon has passed away. It is not possible to say absolutely that *Mrs. Malaprop* might not have been so young a woman as Miss Snowdon represents her to be, but she could not possibly have been so handsome; otherwise the repugnance to her, expressed by several of the men, and especially the epithets applied to her by *Captain Absolute* and *Sir Lucius O'Trigger*, both *viva voce* and by written letter, have no meaning. The comely person and handsome face of Miss Snowdon are as antagonistic to the idea of a "haridan" as anything we could desire to look upon. Mr. and Mrs. Alfred Wigan's engagement ends this week, and on Monday evening next Mr. and Mrs. Charles Matthews are to return to the Haymarket, after a two years' absence. To-night Shakespeare's "Winter's Tale" is to be brought out at the Surrey, under the superintendence of Mr. James Anderson, who seems determined to attempt to raise the standard of transpontine taste.

By a slip of the pen we last week spoke of "Manfred" having been brought out at Covent Garden in 1837; it should have been 1834, in which year it was produced on the 29th of October, the theatre being at that time under the management of the late Mr. Alfred Bunn.

THE new theatre at Homburg, a most splendid building, is to be opened on the 3rd of November. It contains three tiers of boxes, one large "princes' box," and is most brilliantly decorated in gold and satin. There will be room for 1200 persons; and a French company has been engaged for the ensuing winter. There will be a grand opera in summer.



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